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The chrysanthemums that glorify Hibiya Park, Tokyo, in November.

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

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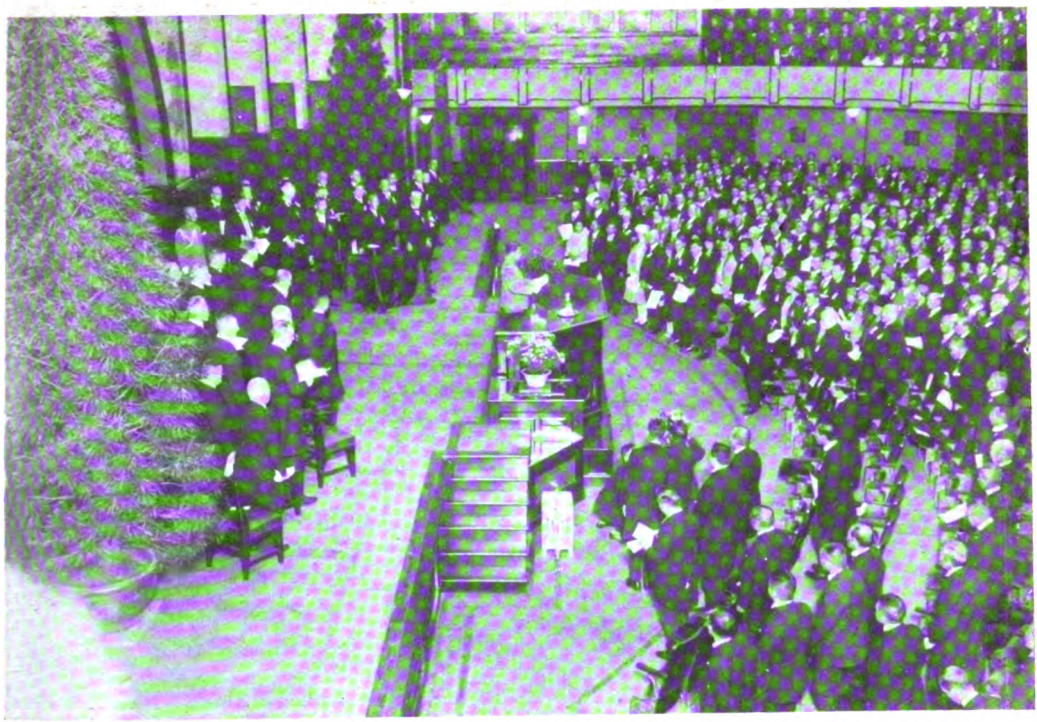

The Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress in Session in Tokyo.

The Second Oriental Red Cross Conference in its Opening Session.

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General Bramwell Booth (center) head of the Salvation Army, on his visit to Japan.

The new Mayor of Tokyo, Mr. Hiromichi Nishikubo, who succeeded Mr. Izawa.

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

Vol. XVII DECEMBER, 1926 No. 3

The Current Thought of Japan

(I)

By Dr. Toru Nagai

Formerly Director, Labor-Capital Reconciliation Society
(A Lecture at the Teiyu Ethical Association)

In my opinion the popular thought in Japan can be generally divided into three periods; the first period from the beginning of the Meiji Restoration until the promulgation of the Constitution granted by the Emperor Meiji and the proclamation of the Imperial Rescript on Education, the second from the establishment of the Constitution to the end of the Meiji Era through the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars, the third from the beginning of the Taisho Era until today through Japan's participation in the World War.

I think it appropriate to trace the changes of political, economic and moral thoughts in this country, by so dividing them into the above three periods.

Before entering the first period what political thought obtained soon before and after the Meiji Restoration? There was the wonderful change from feudalism to constitutionalism. Originally speaking, on the collapse of an aristocratic feudal system despotic monarchism naturally follows; there are many such precedents in Europe, that a constitutional system is established following a loud cry for liberty among the people against despotism.

However, in Japan the thought which arose at the end of the Feudal Period was constitutionalism and parliamentism. It was not consitutional thought as we have it today, not parliamentism or democratism in the strict sense of the words. Constitutionalism in those days meant that all affairs of state should be publicly discussed and decided by summoning feudal lords from all parts of the country. Nevertheless, it was an amazing change of thought. It was a consequence of the introduction of constitutional and democratic thought from America, England and France towards the end of the Tokugawa Government.

In the memorial to the Throne presented by Prince Keiki Tokugawa, the last Shogun, on the occasion of the restoration of the administrative authority to the Emperor that thought of constitutionalism is distinctly referred to; the Five Articled Imperial Oath proclaimed by the Emperor Meiji in 1868 was a crystalization of constitutional and democratic thought.

In the same year a book on politics entiled "An Essay on the Form of Government," was published. The book aimed at explaining the constitutional

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system of government which distinctly divides the two authorities, legislative and administrative. It must have been considered in those days as an adventurous scheme to attempt the adoption of such a system.

In this way the first period of the Meiji Era was entered.

At the beginning of the Meiji Era two different thoughts were fighting each other; one was that of monarchical restoration and the other that of an open-door for foreign intercourse. The word I-shin or Restoration are quoted from the famous passage in a Chinese book which says: "An old state as Chou is a vivified country."

Prior to the Restoration the thought of reverence for the Imperial Dynasty and that of repulsion of foreigners were combined on the one hand and there was a combination of the two thoughts of adherence to the Shogunate and of the open-door system, prevalent on the other.

Now that the so-called Monarchical Period of the Meiji Restoration arrived, the idea of the open-door began to be taken up as a national policy, which resulted in the combining of absolute loyalism and the open-door idea.

However, many obatcles had to be overcome before the open-door and enterprise policy was definitely established.

The advocates of the restoration of administrative authority to the Emperor insisted on returning to monarchical government as in the olden days of the first Emperor Jimmu; they dwelt upon establishing the office of the deities of Heaven and Earth on the basic policy of theocracy and even went so far as to consider Buddhism heresy. The court nobles as well as Japanese classical scholars belonged to this category. That they entertained such extreme thought is no wonder, since everybody yearned after the monarchical age of ancient days now that the feudal system which had long controlled the wholecountry was smashed up.

But the only extraordinary thing is that young people in the present day are repeatedly crying for the spirit of the foundation of the State, from what motive we can not tell. All of us Japanese have never forgotten the spirit of the national establishment even for a minute. What need is there of crying for that spirit at this hour? Do they really mean to restore the country to the old age when the system of communism still prevailed and that of private ownership was not as yet recognized? Do they intend to set up the ancient society in the future world? Now the moment is not for such a scheme in the least. Young men today ought to bear on their shoulders a far greater and sacred mission.

However, the cour tnobles and Japanese classical scholars in the wake of the Meiji Restoration are not to blame for having endeavoured to realize a new society in which theocracy should be established longing only for the resoration of government to thh Imperial Dynasty. Such a thought was harboured by comparatively conservative people, and the general trend of the world and the orientation of people's minds in the interior of the country accelerated the adoption of the open-door and enterprising national policy.

Japan was, during those days, in such a position that it had to be unified by centralization of power; the clan govern-

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ment was followed by the Meiji bureaucratic government, officials occupying important posts in the government being still far from exempt from the old thought of feudalism.

It was quite reasonable that they were inclined to carry on administration of monarchical despotism similar to that once prevalent in European countries, but the general populace could not acquiesce in it.

At least, people of the samurai class of clans other than Satsuma and Choshu, as well as the landlord class, would not consent to it. They called for the bestowal of political rights on the people and for a parliament directly representing their interests. The advocacy of the rights and liberty of the people arose, and movements for party politics were started. Such movements were started by bourgeois-citizens, as was the case in the French Revolotion and other political movements in European countries.

It is one of the characteristics of political affairs in Japan that they are invariably associated with the question of national polity. The beginning of the Meiji Era was not without this question in people's minds. Far-sighted men in those days were greatly concerned with the question of a national constitution.

In view of social thoughts in people's minds today, everybody seems to associate this thought with the idea of national polity. The relation of political thought to the conception of a national constitution at the beginning of the Meiji Era strikingly resembles it.

What sort of the idea of national polity was entertained by people in general in those days? The Jiyu-to (Liberal Party) and Kaishin-to (Progressive Party) at that time demanded the establishment of a Constitution by a popular convention, instead of a Constitution granted by the Emperor as was later promulgated.

The late Count T. Itagaki strongly advocated a national assembly to establish a Constitution based on government simultaneously by monarch and people. For achieving the object of harmonizing the Sovereign's rights with the people's rights, he resorted to the theory that the state emanates from an accord of the Emperor's rights and the people's rights and that the Emperor does not own the state privately for the simple reason that he represents it.

But people on the side of the clan government at that time regarded a political party upholding such an opinion as national foes; they considered it at least contradictory to Japan's national polity.

In order to dispel such misinterpretation the Liberal Party published a theory of reverence for the Imperial Dynasty in 1882, calling on Japanese classical scholars for grave reflection upon the paramount problem, by showing a comparison between the British monarch and the Russian Czar, emphasizing that the Liberal Party did not forget reverence for the Sovereign.

The clan politicians thought the establishment of a Constitution by popular convention was out of the question. In those days the constitution was generally called 'National' Constitution or *Kokken*, and although the clan politicians felt the imminent necessity of establishing a National Constitution in the long run, they believed that by so doing they would

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be compelled to revolutionize the national polity itself.

With all his far-sightedness, even Prince Ito who was generally regarded as possessing very new thoughts was of the opinion, about 1880, that the establishment of a Constitution or promulgation of the so-called National Constitution would cause an entire change in the national polity.

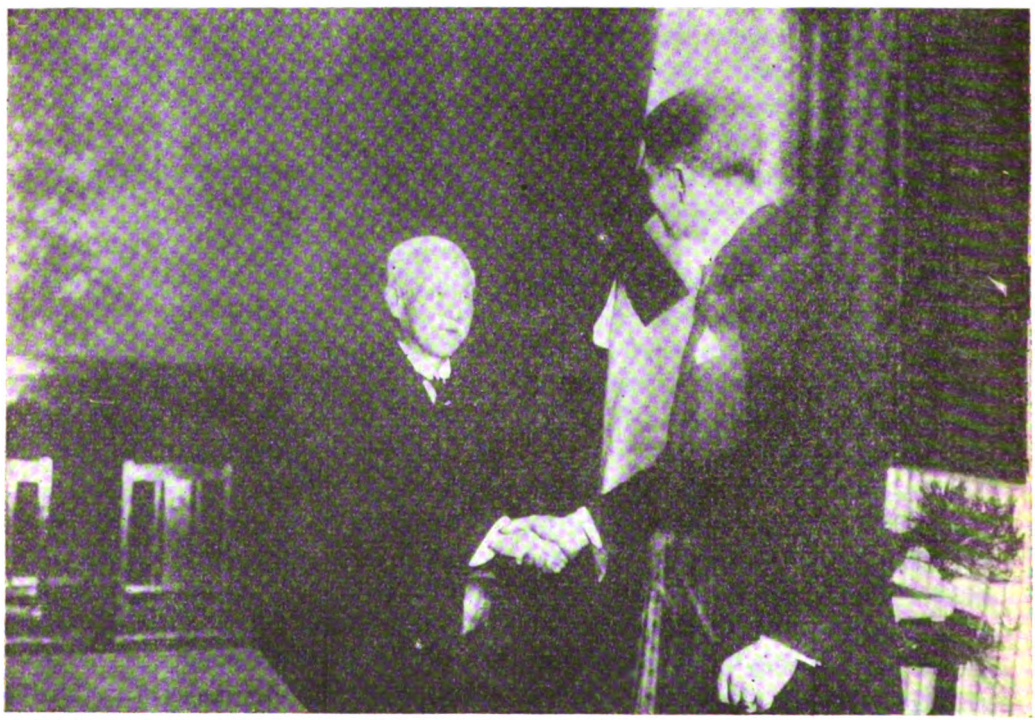
In the first period of the development of national thought political thought prevalent in foreign countries was introduced into Japan as a sort of liberalism combined with the principle of *contrat social* which controlled the ideas of at least part of the intelligentzia.

Most likely such political thought was a fruit of the introduction of liberal thought regarding personal rights and natural rights known in Europe since John Locke's ideas and the theory of social contract advocated by J. J. Rousseau, but it is not clearly known to what extent the democratic liberalism of John Stuart Mill was accepted by the Japanese people in those days.

As Japan's national constitution is a unique one having no counterpart, no scholar has so far upheld the theory of sovereignty of the people, as advocated elsewhere. Nor has a single person ever dreamed of republican government.

In this manner we entered the second period of political thought,

(To be Continued)



The presentation ceremony of a Red Cross Flag to the Japan Red Cross Society with a cordial greeting from Sir Claude Hill, Director General, League of Red Cross Societies. Sir Claude was represented by Mr. L. E. de Gielgud.

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The Artificial Silk Industry of Japan

THE artificial silk industry is in course of marked development in Japan and is being watched with keen interest by capitalists and other interested people.

In March, 1926, when the import tariff was generally revised, the Government raised the import duty on artificial silk to 125 yen per 100 kin as against 87.90 yen per 100 kin as previously, for the object of protecting the home industry.

Each artificial silk mill in existence is being extended, and new mills are projected by prominent business men and important woollen and other companies.

The industry was first started in Japan in 1913, by Suzuki & Co. with the viscose system. Since then, not a few mills were built by other parties, but some of them were shut down, and the remainder experienced vicissitudes of fortune before they reached the present condition of development and prosperity.

The history of the artificial silk industry in Japan may be divided into three periods. The first period began in 1914, when the World War broke out and the foreign supply of the goods was suspended, giving a chance to the enterprising Kobe firm, Suzuki & Co., to launch its enterprise, ahead others. This period ended in 1920, when the economic world had an adverse reaction from the former prosperity. The second period was from 1921 to 1923, in which latter year occurred the great earthquake. The third period dates from 1924 to the present time.

The first period was that of experiments, and the mills established then mostly went out of existence. The checking of artificial silk importation by the war and the activity of silk weaving in the interior stimulated later projects in the artificial silk line, which was most apparent in 1916 and 1917.

All of them adopted the nitrified fibrine system or the copper ammonium system, with a view to producing explosives in time of emergency.

They encountered, however, technical difficulties, which led to their dissolution, amalgamation or reorganization.

The second period was the period of natural selection, when some, which were financially incapable of meeting that trying time, vanished, while others, which were capable of it, strengthened their foundation.

The industry then entered upon the first stage of development. In the economic crisis which overtook the economic world of Japan in 1920, there were more downfalls. When trade revived a little afterwards, however, the industry resumed activity.

In 1921, the Imperial Artificial Silk Co. affiliated with Suzuki & Co., built its No. 2 mill at Hiroshima, and a few other mills were put up by other parties. Subsequently, the Japan Cotton Trading Co. bought up the Asahi Artificial Silk Co., with which it organized the Asahi Silk Weaving Co. These mills adopted the viscose system.

The earthquake in 1923 had an epoch making effect on this industry as on other lines. A series of declines in foreign exchanges had the result of diminishing the importation of artificial silk, while

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the idea of a simple and economical life instilled into the people by the catastrophe had the effect of expanding requirements for the comparatively inexpensive artificial silk products, creating a greatly increased demand for that silk. This opened the way for the present great expansion of the industry.

In 1925, Japan produced artificial silk to the amount of 3,000,000 lbs., of which 90 per cent. was produced by the Imperial Artificial Silk Co. and Asashi Silk Weaving Co. At the end of the year, the former company's Yonezawa and Hiroshima mills were extended so as to have double capacity.

The following table shows production, importation, exportation and consumption in the eight years ending 1925:—

Year.	Production. Lbs.	Importation. Lbs.	Total. Lbs.	Exportation Lbs.	Consumption. Lbs.
1918 . .	100,000	77,086	177,086	7,000	170,086
1919 . .	140,000	75,716	125,716	30,000	185,716
1920 . .	200,000	79,805	279,805	15,000	264,805
1921 . .	150,000	137,739	287,739	5,000	282,739
1922 . .	250,000	224,142	474,142	6,000	468,142
1923 . .	580,000	1,006,609	1,586,609	5,000	1,581,609
1924 . .	1,035,000	885,572	1,920,572	10,000	1,910,572
1925 . .	3,000,000	831,099	3,831,099	15,000	3,816,099
1926 . .	5,500,000	2,500,000	8,000,000	10,000	7,990,000

The above production and exportation and all the figures for 1926 are estimates.

It will be noted from the table that the consumption of artificial silk in Japan multiplied several fold in the past few years. In 1918, the amount was only about 170,000 lbs., but it increased to about 470,000 lbs. in 1922. Subsequently, the figure rose much more markedly than before, and reached about 1,600,000 lbs. in 1925. This increased demand was aroused by the remarkable growth of production of the article here. In 1922, the production was only 250,000 lbs., but it swelled to 800,000 lbs. in 1623, to 1,500,000 lbs. in 1924 and to 3,000,000 lbs. in 1925, although these are estimates and do not represent the actual output. This increase in production prevented the importation of the article in a measure. In 1923, the importation stood at about 1,000,000 lbs., but in 1924, it fell off to about 900,000 lbs. and then in 1925, it decreased further to about 833,000 lbs. Therefore, foreign artificial silk does not retain its former predominance in the Japanese market.

The Imperial Artificial Silk Co. and the Asashi Silk Weaving Co. are the biggest of the mills in existence in Japan. The former had a daily capacity of 10,000 lbs. and the latter that of 3,000 lbs. in March, 1926. Besides, the Tokyo Artificial Silk Mill had a daily capacity of 500 lbs., the Miye Artificial Silk Industrial Co. that of 200 lbs. and the Artificial Silk Industrial Co. that of 50 lbs. These totalled 13,750 lbs., making a yearly amount of 4,115,000 lbs.

The technique of artificial silk manufacturing has made steady advancement in Japan. The two biggest concerns have been able to lower their cost of production to 1.20 or 1.30 yen, nearly one-third of the market price. This is a very lucrative

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feature of the industry and is enough to attract the attention of capitalists at the present moment, when almost all lines of commerce and industry are unprofitable. In fact, there are several important projects in progress, while theexisting mills all have extension schemes in course of realization. When these plans are consummated, which may be expected within a few years, artificial silk making will rank very important among the national industries, with an aggregate daily capacity of 74,000 lbs. which will make a yearly total of 22,200,000 lbs., the capital invested then amounting in the aggregate to 100,000,000 yen at least.

The following table which has been obtained from a reliable source, shows the extension and new projects under plan in the industry in July, 1926:—

Company.	Capital Paid Up. Nominal. ¥ 1,000	¥ 1,000	Location.	System of Plant.	Estimated Daily Capacity. Lbs.
Extension Projects:					
Imperial Art. Silk Co. .	12,500	8,750	Iwakuni	Hiroshima	12,000
Asahi Silk Weav. Co. .	8,000	6,000	Nobeoka	German G.	12,000
Tokyo Art. Silk Co. . .	10,000	2,500	Yoshiwara	,, O.	5,000
Art. Silk Indus. Co. . .	3,000	1,500	Kawagoye	,,	1,000
Miye Art. Silk Indus. Co.	1,000	1,000	Matsuzaka	Suga (Japan)	2,000
New Projects:					
Oriental Rayon Co. . .	10,000	5,000	Ishiyama	German O.	6,600
Japan Rayon Co. . . .	15,000	3,750	Uji	,, ,,	4,400
Kurashiki Silk Weav. Co.	10,000	2,500	Kurashiki	,,	3,300
Oriental Spinning Co. .	10,000	2,500	Katada	,, O.	2,000
Japan Woolen Co. . .	1,000	1,000	Nagoya	Italian	1,000
Maruwa Weav. Co. . .	1,000	1,000	Maruoka	?	1,000
Imperial Explosives Co. .	1,000	1,000	Taketoyo	?	1,000
Gosho Co.	5,000	2,500	,,	?	2,500
Total	87,500	39,000			52,000

Some of the figures mentioned above are estimates.

All these mills will have the viscose process.

In addition to the above projects, there are some others planned by several big concerns, including Mitsubishi, Kanegafuchi Spinning, Katakura Silk Mill, Oji Paper Mill and Fuji Paper Mill Cos. These paper mills presumably project manufacturing pulp for artificial silk making and not producing the silk itself, which will be economically possible in a few years, with the great expansion of the industry.

When all the existing projects are carried out as planned at present, one authority calculates the daily output of the article in Japan will come up to 210,000 lbs., equivalent to 63,000,000 lbs. a year, in 1931. The figure does not include a certain proposed export artificial silk manufacturing plant, and when it is added to the above, the total makes 410,000 lbs. a day and 120,000,000 lbs. a year. This is nearly as much as the world's production in 1924 and would seem to be too large to be practicable.

The above mentioned export artificial silk plant is planned by the Imperial Artificial Silk Co. with a capital of 100,000,000 yen, which will be paid up by

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one-fourth every five or seven years, and five mills, each with a daily capacity of 40,000 lbs., will be built. The projectors estimate the world's future demand for artificial silk will ultimately reach about 2,000,000,000 lbs. a year maximum, of which China and India will require about 200,000,000 lbs., which they wish to supply, gradually enlarging their plant to a yearly capacity of 200,000,000 lbs. When this proposed company's capital is added to that of the other mills under project as above, the total makes 280,000,000 yen.

All the artificial silk mills existing and projected in Japan use the viscose process, which is believed to do much towards placing the Japanese industry in an advantageous position in relation to the supply of materials in future. For the present, these materials are obtained entirely from foreign lands, but study in the technique of manufacturing them ought to find means for adequate supply in the interior. There can be no doubt, therefore, that the industry will come to hold a very close connection with paper mills in future.

Sites for the mills are being chosen mostly along the Uji River and Lake Biwa, the water of which well suits bleaching which is important for successful artificial silk making. Moreover, the place is close to large consuming districts and also to Kobe and Osaka, through which the goods may be exported conveniently.

In artificial silk making, like cotton spinning, the products are developing from coarse sizes to fine sizes. Certain artificial silk mills plan weaving fabrics, while certain cotton spinning mills purpose spinning artificial silk and a woollen manufacturing mill making artificial wool will use it in woollen cloth munufacturing.

The many projects existing are a cause of apprehension as to a future oversupply of artificial silk. In the event of all these projects being carried out exactly as designed, an over supply will be inevitable in future.

The total output in Japan in 1926 is estimated by a reliable authority at 5,000,000 lbs., which will be quadrupled in 1928, when the first program of the present projects will have been carried out. If the situation in the industry should undergo an adverse change and it should become impossible to proceed with the programs, however, the above production will not be realized.

In connection with the future supply of artificial silk, Director Fujino of the Mitsubishi Paper Mills has recently published his estimate. In this estimate, he gives the total production as 5,000,0000 lbs. in 1926, as 12,000,000 lbs. in 1927, as 34,800,000 bls. in 1928 or 1929 and as 75,000,000 lbs. in 1930-1931.

Shifting to the question of the prospective consumption of artificial silk in Japan, it is harder to estimate it than that of supply, for it has close relation with changes in fashion.

Dr. Nishida estimating the future consumption of artificial silk, has given the present production of pure silk fabrics and silk mixtures as 18,000,000 lbs., of which 15,000,000 lbs. are made of raw silk. The amount represents only one-half of the total capacity of the present silk mills. Granting that the existing silk looms are all put in operation and use artificial silk as the only material, their

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total output will reach 35,000,000 lbs. and the figure will come to 18,000,000 lbs., if it is granted that the present total production of silk fabrics is made of artificial silk. The maximum amount of artificial silk, which may take the place of raw silk as material for silk fabrics in future, is reckoned to be 13,000,000 lbs., to which is added 8,800,000 lbs. assumed for the production of hosiery goods, making a total of 21,000,000 lbs. which forms the maximum amount of artificial silk to be consumed in future. If production should actually multiply as above estimated, however, it would be overproduced in a few years.

The question is then how to minimize this possible oversupply. There are two ways sugested for it. One of them is to cultivate the export market and the other to adjust production. Everybody sees the keen importance of cultivating a market abroad for the goods, and in fact, not a few of the mills under project at present have the exportation of their products as the chief object. From this, we may expect that Japan will be placed in a favorable position as an exporter of the goods in future.

The projected mills will have a cost of production of 1.80 or 2.00 yen per lb. at first, but this will be lowered to 1.30 or 1.40 yen in a few years, when it should not be impossible for those of 10,000 lbs. or over in capacity to reduce it further to about 1.00 yen, with which it would not be hard for them to compete against the foreign products in the international market.

In the production and exportation of artificial silk manufactures, the mills may do better than that of artificial silk itself. Even to-day, artificial silk fabrics are exported largely to China. When this trade develops it will remove the cause of apprehension of overproduction.

The production of artificial silk may be adjusted by giving up extension plans, and not simply by the suspension of running of the machines, if it is considered unavoidable according to the condition of the market.

The price of artificial silk has a declining tendency, naturally, as a result of its increased production and competition and its lowered cost of production. Practically, the cost of production in the Hiroshima Mill of the Imperial Artificial Silk Co. stood at 6.00 yen in March, 1922, but it having been lowered gradually, has reached 1,30 yen now. It will be reduced more and more, and in a few years, it will most probably go down to about 1.00 yen.

With an artificial silk mill of 10,000 lbs. daily capacity, the cost of production per lb. is 0.65 yen for raw marerials, bleaching, packing, etc., 0.30 yen for wages, 0.10 yen for fuel and motive power and 0.30 yen for working expenses, amortization, etc., making a total of 1.35 yen, which is only one-third of the present price of artificial silk ruling here. This is very profitable business and it is but natural that 50 per cent. dividends have been paid recently by the Imperial and Asahi companies,—a profit not obtainable in any other industry in the present hard times. The cost will be brought down more, when the projected mills market their products.

The price of imported artificial silk has declined considerably of late, as a result of a reduction of its prices in Italy and

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America, and is lower than that of the Japanese product.

As to how the price will fall hereafter, a reliable opinion is that at present, the price of Japanese artificial silk is comparatively high, due to inadequate supply, and its manufacturers will do very profitably until the end of 1927, after which they will perhaps find it hard to do a similarly lucrative business, with the price dropping rather precipitously, compelling the present second or third extension projects to be given up.

This depression will continue for two or three years. upon which the price will be stabilized on the basis of the cost of production and the condition of supply and demand as for all other textile materials. During the above period of decline the use of artificial silk will be much more than at present and the market will be extended abroad. It should not be hard for the industry to increase its production and to hold a respectable position in the world's market.

In concluding this article, we may reproduce recent remarks made by Mr. M. Matsushima, Managing Director of the Imperial Artificial Silk Co.:

The artificial silk industry has made rapid development these few years, but the demand for the article has increased more keenly than that and is estimated to reach 7,500,000 lbs. this year, while the production will be only 4,800,000 lbs., falling short of the demand by 2,700,000 or 2,800,000 lbs., which will have to be imported.

In 1927, the Imperial company will have a total capacity of 8,500,000 lbs., which in combination with the Asahi and other mills' capacities will be quite enough to satisfy the demand without any imports. When the existing projects are entirely carried out, the total yearly capacity will come up to 50,000,000 lbs. in 1929 or 1930, provided that they are consummated as designed. In the meantime, the demand may be estimated as follows:—

Year.	Demand. Lbs.	Year.	Demand. Lbs.
1926.....	7,500,000	1930.....	23,000,000
1927.....	11,000,000	1931.....	28,000,000
1928.....	15,000,000	1936.....	40,000,000
1929.....	20,000,000	1941.....	50,000,000

It will be necessary for the Japanese munufacturers to export the amount of supply over demand by cultivating the market abroad in competition with the formidable Italian manufacturers. The competition cannot be carried on successfully, unless the mills are most completely and efficiently equipped, and the cost of production is brought down below the Italian standard.

The Imperial Artificial Silk Co.'s products, which are made entirely by Japanese exports, cost little while they are superior in quality and have won the reputation of being the best in the world, in the Chinese market.

The maximum limit of Japanese requirements for artificial silk in future is estimated to be between 30,000,000 lbs. and 50,000,000 lbs. a year. At the same time, we may expect much greater demand in India and China, where very glossy artificial silk fabrics have met the taste of the natives.

Granting that the Indian and Chinese peoples consume one-half of the consumption per capita in Japan, the total will come to 360,000,000 lbs. The Japanese manufacturers must propor-

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tionately enlarge their work and extend the market for their products as far as America, South Sea Islands and Australia, in competition with the Italian manufacturers.

The present world's production of cotton yarns, wool and artificial silk amounts to 11,000,000,000 lbs., 2,800,000,000 lbs., and 220,000,000 lbs. respectively. Artificial silk will perhaps have a demand of about 3,000,000,000 lbs. in future as has wool at present.

Japan produces 1,000,000,000 lbs. of cotton yarns, or 9 per cent. of the world's output. This is made of a material which Japan cannot produce. The artificial silk industry is more suitable for Japan than the cotton spinning industry, for its raw material will be produced here in future and the consumption of imported raw cotton and wool will diminish according as the industry develops and its products take the place of cotton and woollen yarns more and more.

Regarding pulp for artificial silk making, it has hitherto been obtained entirely from foreign lands, amounting yearly to about 10,000 tons, which will increase to 16,000 tons, when the present proposed artificial silk mills are brought into being. Certain leading paper mills in Japan plan manufacturing it, when it grows economically advatageous. The Fuji Paper Mills are alleged to be among them.

Appended is a table showing the importation of artificial silk from different countries in the world during 1921 and 1924:—

Country.	1921. Quantity. Pcls.	1921. Value. 1,000 Yen	1924. Quantity. Pcls.	1924. Value. 1,000 Yen
England	338	176	3,436	1'477
France	351	97	446	168
Germany	0	0	1,028	419
Belgium	27	10	222	115
Switzerland	344	142	373	130
Italy.....	41	16	1,146	414
Netherlands	16	5	96	20
America.....	25	14	25	12
Other Countries.	1	3	0	3
Total	1,043	463	6,785	2,763

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A History of the Japanese Stage

XIII

PLAYWRIGHTS towards the end of the Yedo period, unlike novelists, never attempted at first to write anything in adaptation from one an other's works, which they avoided as affecting their dignity.

Towards the Bunka era, however, many masterpieces were produced by such great novelists as Santo Kyoden, Kyokutei Bakin and Ryutei Tanehiko, and as they were very widely read, some of these works were dramatized by some playwrights. Even some original works published by story-tellers at variety-houses were dramatized. These adaptations from outside decreased creative works in the theatrical world more and more, while at the same time, playbooks grew richer and more interesting in their contents.

The representative playwrights of the age in Kyoto and Osaka were Tatsuoka Mansaku and Tamiki Gohei.

Tatsuoka was a son of Tatsuoka Hisagiku, a player of feminine roles. In the 5th year of Anyei (1776), when he was 35 years of age, he was attached to the Naka Theatre, Osaka, as a playwright, and his earnest devotion to his duties struck Mimasu Daigo, the leading actor, who saw in him a great dramatist. Two years later, he was given a high position at the Somematsu Theatre, Kyoto. Subsequently, he was transferred to an Osaka theatre, when at the age of 51, he first wrote a masterpiece. He died in the 7th year of Bunka (1810) at the age of 68, leaving behind him 15 masterpieces.

He wrote historical dramas better than social plays. He was particularly skilled in adapting current events into historical dramas. All the playwrights of the age did this, as the Tokugawa Government prohibited by law to dramatize current events, and he showed his excellent ability and brilliancy in this direction.

Namiki Gohei, who was born in Osaka, was at first a pupil of Tatsuoka Mansaku, but later, he entered the school of Namiko Shozo. In the 6th year of Anyei (1777), when he was 31 years of age, he adopted name of Namiki Gohei. He had already acted as chief playwright in a theatre, to which position he was promoted earlier than Tatsuoka Mansaku, his former master. He had already produced not a few masterpieces. These works numbered 17, of which *Tenmangu-Natane-Goku*, *Kimmon-Gosan-no-Kiri* and *Shimameguri-Uye-no-Kikigaki* (so-called *Godoiriki*) are staged even to-day.

He was highly valued by Sawamura Sojuro the Third, with whom he visited Yedo in the 6th year of Kanyei (1794), when he was 48 years old. Subsequently he wrote 20 plays for Sawamura and Segawa Kikunojo, and of these plays, *Sumida-no-Haru-Geisha-Katagi* and *Tomiga-oka-Koi-no-Yamabiraki* have been played often till the present time.

After the death of Sawamura, he wrote plays for Matsumoto Koshiro the Fifth till the last days of his life.

He died in the 5th year of Bunka (1808) at the age of 62, before which he wrote thirty more masterpieces.

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The most admirable points in his works were that all were systematic in construction and he excelled equally in historical and domestic plays.

The Yedo people were emotional rather than intellectual and had a fondness for bravery. What particularly caught their fancy were rough scenes, although perhaps absurd and simple, while on the other hand, the Kyoto and Osaka people valued more intellectual drama rather than the sensational, and prefered intelligence to bravery.

Moreover, the latter people attached more importance to plot and took delight in plays rich in substance and systematic in plot, contrary to the low taste of the Yedo people, who were amused simply with interest aroused in every act, however incoherent the whole plot might be.

Plays written in Kyoto and Osaka were more complex than those in Yedo. Moreover the popularity of marionettes advanced the art of stage-setting in these places. The theatrical world of Kyoto and Osaka was, therefore, more progressive than that of Yedo.

Namiki Gohei learned playwriting in Osaka in his youth, and when he came later to write plays in Yedo, he skilfully adapted into them the merits of those in Kyoto or Osaka, flavoured with the Yedo taste. This method distinguished him as a playwright.

An important innovation made by Namiki was the distinction established by him between the first and second plays on the program at the Miyako Theatre, in the 7th year of Kansei (1795). Before that time historical and domestic performances were crowded into the same play and presented the same day at Yedo theatres, tradesmen and women of Yedo appearing in these domestic plays, usually as disguised as anonymous men and women of historical note. The idea was good for diversifying the scenes, but at the same time, it was unnatural and made the plot incoherent.

Since the *Keisei-Arashi-Soga* made a big hit at the Nakamura Theatre in January in the 5th year of Hoyei (1708), all the Yedo theatres had no plays for January but those in relation to the Soga. In these whole day plays, it was necessary, therefore, to have all their figures more or less connected with the Soga, and Soga-no-Goro was sometimes disguised as a profligate but chivalrous man of Yedo. This rendered the plays unnatural and cramped. This absurdity in playwriting was removed later by Namiki Gohei, who initiated two different plays to be performed the same day, or a historical drama for the first part and a domestic drama for the second part, for instance, as it is arranged to-day.

Namiki was resourceful and ready-witted and several episodes showing these characteristics are told about him.

When Sawamura Sojuro came back to Osaka in the 4th year of Kansei (1792) after many years' absence in Yedo and appeard at the Naka Theatre, a long daimyo procession was shown before the audience and two real horses appeared in it. This aroused the curiosity of the citizens and drew large houses. On the 9th day, one horse staled on the stage, followed by the other. Seeing this, the spectators made a noise, and the noise startled the horses, which dashed into the pit. The disturbance was settled only by Government officials sent by the *machi-*

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bugyo (the governor). The theatre had to be closed for three days on this account by way of an apology to the citizens for disturbing them.

Chikamatsu Tokuso was another famous playwright of Kyoto and Osaka. He was a son of a prostitute house keeper in Osaka. He took a fancy to drama from his boyhood and later entered the school of Chikamatsu Hanji, a playwright. In the 7th year of Kansei (1795) at the age of 44, he became a chief playwright. In may the following year, one Itsuki Magofuku killed and wounded several persons in the Aburaya, a prostitute house at Furuichi, Ise Province. Chikamatsu, who learned of the incident, dramatised it and put the play on the boards in July, the same year, under the title of *Ise-Ondo-Koi-no-Netaba*. It was a great success, with which Chikamatsu won his reputation. The play is popular even to-day, and Ichimura Uzayemon and Jitsukawa Enjaku have often performed it in Tokyo and Osaka.

Chikamatsu subsequently wrote about 18 dramas and died at the age of 59 in the 7th year of Bunka (1810).

His works may be classified into two parts. One of them is the dramatization of current events, represented by the above *Ise-Ondo*, and the other is the dramatization or adaptation of new novels, such as Kyokutei Bakin's *Sanshichi-zenden-Nanka-no-Yume*, which was dramatized into the *Mai-Ogi-Nanka-no-Yume* and the same author's *Chinsetsu-Yumihari-Zuki*, which was dramatized into the *Shimamawari-Yumihari-Zuki*. He was the first playwright dramatizing novels. One reason for this was the publication of these great novels in his life-time and another reason was that he was more skilled in compilation than in origination.

After him, there were such playwrights as Nakawa Shimesuke, Nakawa Tokusuke, Nakawa Harusuke and Nishizawa Ippo, but none of them wrote any famous drama.

The first representative playwright in Yedo was Sakurada Jisuke. He was a pupil of Sakurada Nisaji. He was born in Yedo. At first, he learned play-writing at the Ichimura Thertre. Later, he went to Osaka, where he studied it for about four years. He came back to Yedo at the age of 31. He was favoured by Ichikawa Danzo the Third, and he was appointed to the position of chief playwright at the Ichimura Theatre, where Danzo was the leader.

In the 6th year of Meiwa (1767), he was transferred to the Nakamura Theatre, which had such great actors as Ichikawa Danjuro the Fourth, Ichikawa Danjuro the Fifth (then Matsumoto Koshiro), Matsumoto Koshiro the Fourth (then Matsumoto Komazo), Nakamura Nakazo the First, Nakamura Utayemon the First and Segawa Kikunojo the Second. Sakurada acting as chief playwright among these actors, felt elated.

In the 2nd year of Anyei (1773), he wrote the famous *Gohiiki-Kanjin-cho*, one of his masterpieces.

In the meantime, trouble occurred between the theatre proprietor and actors, on account of which all belonging to the Ichikawa family retired from the theatre. From then, Sakurada wrote for a company led by Nakamura Nakazo.

In the 5th year of Anyei (1776), he was appointed the chief playwright of a company of Ichikawa Danjuro the Fifth

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and Matsumoto Koshiro the Fourth. Later, differences arose between these two actors, and upon their separation, he followed Koshiro's company. He wrote both historical and domestic plays well, but excelled more in the latter than the former. He considered it better for displaying his ability to write for Koshiro, who was best at domestic plays.

He died in the 3rd year of Bunka (1806) at the age of 73. He wrote as many as 48 masterpieces. Both his domestic and historical plays were good. The latter had survivals of old Yedo wild and gallant plays and the former gave clever depictions of the fashionable life of tradesmen of the age. *Sukeroku*, a popular play to-day, was written by him.

He was proud in his conduct and thought it beneath him to bend before junior actors. His dying words to his pupils were: "Don't hold a memorial service for me after my derth. Be most careful not to let Yedo plays dissapear. Do your best to prevent play-writing from being controlled by actors, which may be inevitable in about thirty years."

As he had feared, playwrights were enslaved to actors after his death, writing plays simply to meet their taste.

He was a good self-advertiser. Every time farmers came to sell pumpkins, from the suburbs, he bought them up. They were very thankful to him and would inquire of his neighbors his name and occupation, which they told to their village folks. It was his strategem to advertise his name in the subutbs of Yedo at the expense of cheap pumpkins.

Namiki Gohei was a match for him. These two leading playwrights were followed by Tsuruya Nanboku the Fourth, who represented the playwrights in the Bunka and Bunsei eras (1804-1829).

Tsuruya Nanboku the Fourth was the son of a dyer in Yedo. In the 4th year of Anyei (1775), he entered the school of Kanai Sansho at the age of 21 and wrote plays under the pen-name of Katsu Hyozo. At first, he belonged to the company of Banto Hikosaburo the Third and then to that of Onoye Matsusuke, through whose recommendation, he was elevated to the position of a leading playwright at the age of 50 in the lst year of Bunka (1804).

At that time, Onoye Matsusuke led a company at the Kawarasaki Theatre, which was poorly attended, until Nanboku's *Tenjiku-Tokubei-Ikoku-Banashi* was presented and drew big houses. The play was so great a success that it was performed for 70 consecutive days. This won the more the confidence of Matusuke in him. Soon afterwards, Matusuke died of old age, and after that he wrote plays for Onoye Kikugoro the Third, Matsumoto Koshiro the Fifth and Ichikawa Danjuro the Seventh.

In the 8th year of Bunka (1811), he took the name of Tsuruya Nanboku the Fourth. The same name was born by comedians, until he succeeded to it by marrying a daughter of his predecessor.

Subsequently he wrote 60 plays. He died at the age of 75 in the 12th year of Bunsei (1828).

He most excelled in writing domestic dramas, in which he cleverly depicted street manners and habits with a flavour of comedy. He was excelled by none in writing ghost stories.

Onoye Matsusuke and Onoye Kikugoro were the best players of ghosts, and

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they could display their ability fully, on account of Nanboku's excellent works, which are represented by the *Tokaido-Yotsuya-Kaidan.*

His plays were full of unhuman and melancholy atmosphere and depicted cemeteries, decayed temples, coffins, etc. The reason lies in the fact that not a few of the Yedo people had abnormal tastes, and he himself was much inclined the same way.

After him, there were such noted playwrights as Tsuruya Nanboku the Fifth, Sakurada Jisuke the Third and Segawa Joko the Third. Later, Kawatake Shinshichi the Second distinguished himself as a representative playwright towards the end of the Shogunate. He was afterwards called Kawatake Mokuami. This magazine has often described him, his connection with Ichikawa Kodanji and his works.

The Meiji period now opened in the theatrical world.

(*The End*)

The Hall of Sculpture, Imperial Art Exhibition, Ueno, Tokyo.

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Princess Seikan-in (Kazu-no-miya)

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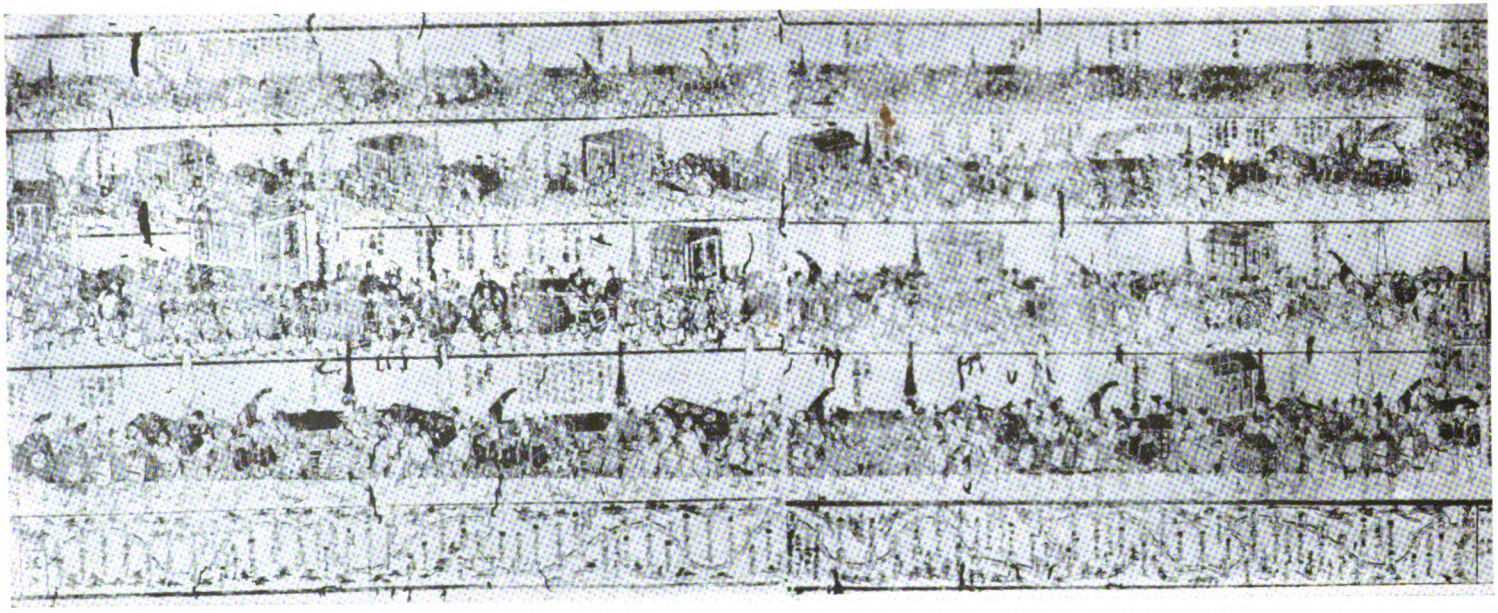

Old pictures showing the progress of Princess Seikan-in (Kazu-no-miya) when she travelled from Kyoto to Yedo to become the Shogun's bride nearly 70 years ago.

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A Typical Japanese Woman

Princess Seikanin

FIFTY years have elapsed since the death of H.I.H. Princess Seikanin, who represented the highest type of Japanese womanhood. In her memory a gorgeous ceremory was held at Zojoji temple on September 2 this year.

The name Seikanin is that she adopted aftertaking the veil. She was H.I.H. Princess Chika Kazu a younger sister of H.M. the Emperor Komei, predecessor of the Great Emperor Meiji. Her short life of only thirty-two years was replete with incident and action. Her life history is, indeed, the tragedy of a Japanese woman who sacrificed herself in the chaos of the Meiji Restoration,—a tragedy of womanhood peculiar to Japan.

She had all the virtues of a Japanese woman, faithful to her husband, filial to her mother-in-law, dutiful to her own family, benevolent to her servants,—through a time of trouble.

From the viewpoint of the national welfare of Japan, she must be revered as a central figure in a period of national stress, who sacrificed herself for her country.

Princess Kazu, daughter of the Emperor Ninko, was born on May tenth in the third year of Koka (1846), when the

Memorial Service at Zojoji Temple, Tokyo, for Princess Seikan-in, who died 50 years ago.

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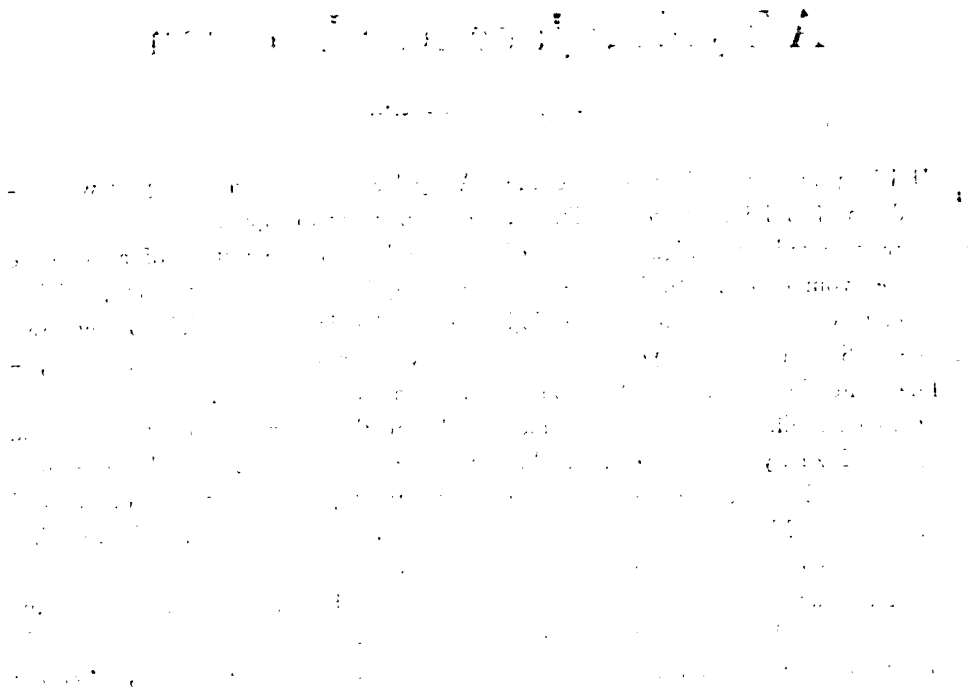

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Emperor Komei, her elder brother, ascended the Throne. In these days the influence of the Tokugawa Shogunate had declined and the whole country was in a chaotic condition.

After the knocking at Japan's door of Commodore Perry in the 6th year of Kayei (1853) there arose a difference of opinion between the Imperial Court at Kyoto and the Tokugawa Shogunate Government at Yedo (now Tokyo) with regard to the diplomatic problem of whether to open the door to the world's trade or to adhere to the traditional loyalty to the Imperial Dynasty in seclusion from outer intercourse; and also the grave question of the Shogunate succession.

The situation was aggravated to such an extent that Premier Ii Kamon-no-kami of the Tokugawa Administration went so far as the drastic measure of the coup d'état of the Ansei Era. Prior to this decisive step, Premier Ii was contriving the wedding of an Imperial princess to the Tokugawa Shogun so as to mitigate the estrangement between the Kyoto Court and the Yedo administration. Unfortunately, however, he was assassinated at the Sakurada Gate, leading to Yedo Castle, before he could realize his intention.

The successors to Premier Ii, Kuzé Yamato-no-kami, Ando Tsushima-no-kami and others, prominent figures in the Tokugawa Administration, continued the scheme of unifying the Imperial Court with the Tokugawa Shogunate, in the wake of the Sakurada Gate tragedy, in conformity with the will of the murdered statesman. The lady who it was proposed should sacrifice herself to this policy was Princess Kazu.

It was in April the 1st year of Manyen (1860) that the Tokugawa Shogunate formally asked in behalf of the reigning Shogun Iyemochi the hand of Princess Kazu, the request being jointly signed by the Tokugawa State Ministers. The Shogunate's request was, in purport, that once the question of the wedding was agreed to by the Imperial Court, not only the anticipated union of the Court and the Tokugawa Government would be realized but it would be effective in repulsing foreigners from the Sacred Land of Japan, in the cause of the country's well-being.

There had been precedents of a marriage of an Imperial lady to the Shogun and of the alliance of Tofukumon-in, daughter of Tokugawa Hidetada, Second Shogun, with the Imperial Court in the 16th year of Keicho (1611). However, such a marriage was very rare, and the Emperor Komei long hesitated to consent to the proposal of the Tokugawa Government.

The Tokugawa Administration, which considered the wedding as the only means of rescuing the country from chaos, reiterated its request for Princess Kazu's hand. The result was that in accordance with Iwakura Tomomi's view, Emperor Komei at length granted permission to marry the Princess to Shogun Iyemochi, on condition that the political power of the Imperial Family should be restored.

On August 6, the 1st year of Manyen (1860) the Emperor Komei commanded that Princess Kazu wed Shogun Iyemochi, through Hashimoto Jitsurei, uncle of the princess. However, the princess declined the proposal of marriage on various grounds. She went far as to

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write her will addressed to the reigning Emperor, her elder brother, giving the reason why she refused. The Emperor was in consternation.

Koga Takemichi, Deputy Premier, proposed to the Throne that Princess Masu-no-miya should take the place of Princess Kazu, suggesting that it would be unadvisable to lose the confidence of the Tokugawa Government at this juncture. The Emperor then made up his mind to send Princess Masu-no-miya, his two year old daughter, in Princess Kazu's place, in compliance with Koga's proposition, so that the tranquility of the State might be maintained.

The Emperor determined to abdicate if the engagement of the younger princess to the Shogun was not fulfilled. He wrote an Imperial rescript to that effect to Prince Kujo, chief adviser.

On hearing this, Princess Kazu found the matter more serious than she had imagined. She may have thought: "It is a grave question. My brother has gone so far as to express his determination to abdicate in the event of the failure of the marriage. How can I be indifferent? It is my duty to sacrifice myself to destiny and to uphold my brother's resolution." This desperate decision came to the princess when she was only fifteen years of age! She assented to her marriage to the Shogun on August 15 the 1st year of Manyen (1860).

She confessed her sorrow in the following poem:

"Oshimajina Kimi to Tami to no
tamé naraba,
Mi wa Musashino no Tsuyu to Kiye
témo!"

"Nothing it would be, if I die in the wilderness of
Eastern Japan, provided it is to the cause of Sovereign and People!"

She left Kyoto on October 20 of the same year and arrived at Shimidzu's residence in Yedo on November 15. She entered the Yedo Castle on December 11. Her marriage with Shogun Iyemochi was celebrated on February 11 in the following year, the 1st of the Bunkyu Era.

It may be easily imagined that her marriage was no happy one, as she entered the court of the Tokugawa Shogunate, the adversary of the Imperial Family. It must have been a bitter test. Notwithstanding, Princess Kazu obeyed family usage; she endeavoured to be in harmony with Tenshoin, her mother-in-law. Her sole idea consisted in giving satisfaction to the Tokugawa Family and enhancing its prosperity. Moreover, she displayed, as a typical Japanese woman, her modesty, elegance and gracefulness. It was thanks to Princess Kazu's modesty and patience that the domestic life of the Shogun was peaceful.

When Princess Kazu had began to have a happy life, on July 20 in the 2nd year of Keio (1866), she suffered the sudden death of her consort, Shogun Iyemochi, who had became desperate on being advised of the defeat of the Tokugawa forces in the Choshu Expedition. He was of the same age as Princess Kazu, twenty-one years old. After her short married life of five years, Princess Kazu was made a widow!

On hearing the death of her husband, Princess Kazu's lamentation was bitter. She at once entered a convent, renaming herself Seikanin.

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Four months later, on December 25 in the 2nd year of Keio, Emperor Komei, the princess's elder brother died, and still a year afterwards the Tokugawa Shogunate met its downfall, in January of the 1st year of Meiji.

In March of the same year the Imperial forces threatened the Yedo Castle which at last surrendered to the Imperial Court in April.

Previous to this, on January 3, the 1st year Meiji (1868), the Tokugawa Family was made the State's enemy by the Imperial troops at the battles of Toba and Fushimi, Kyoto. Those battles were fought without the knowledge of Tokugawa Keiki, the last Shogun. Despite his expression of loyalty to the Emperor no sooner had be returned to Yedo from Osaka by sea, than the militant faction of the Kyoto Court emphasized the slogan:—"Down with Keiki, the Castle of Yedo and the Tokugawa Administration." The Tokugawa Government seemed to be sitting on a barrel of gunpowder. Three times it sent an envoy to Kyoto, with a declaration that the Tokugawa Family was loyal and asking the Imperial Cout not to send any expeditionary army. But such messages were checked on the way by the Imperial forces before reaching the Imperial Court.

Princess Kazu made up her mind to share the destiny of the Tokugawa Clan, and secretly informed Kyoto of the personal confinement of Shogun Keiki, through Major-General Hashimoto. She added that the Tokugawa Family should be left intact, otherwise she would carry out a drastic final resolution. Her letter to the Imperial Court was full of sincerity. Prince Iwakura was moved by it. Iwakura held himself responsible for Princess's Kazu's marriage. It was due to her that the Kyoto Court's attitude towards the Tokugawa house was greatly mitigated, and it was thought justifiable to leave it as an independent family. On receiving the reply from Kyoto the princess felt at ease. She did her utmost to quell the Tokugawa men, while requesting the Imperial Army to withdraw from the Tokaido and Higashiyama regions. The efforts of Princess Kazu brought fruit; negotiations for surrendering the Castle of Yedo to the Kyoto Court by the Tokugawa Shogunate peacefully were concluded between Katsu Awa, representative of Tokugawa, and Saigo Takamori, delegate from the Kyoto Court. In this way the city of Yedo was saved.

Not long after the surrender of the Yedo Castle the Tokugawa Family was permitted to remain in existence, Tayasu Kamenosuké, now Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, being nominated heif of the Clan. Later on the Emperor Meiji, her nephew, invited Princess Kazu to Kyoto, but she declined on the ground that as the mausoleum for the deceased Shogun Iyemochi, her husband, was still under construction and where to settle the Tokugawa Family was not yet decided, she could not visit the Imperial Capital.

In August the 1st year of Meiji (1868) the Tokugawa family migrated to their new home in Suruga Province, where they found a peaceful abode. Thereupon she went to Kyoto in January of the following year, 2nd of the Meiji Era (1869). She exerted efforts in the cause of the Tokugawa Family after her return to Kyoto. In the 7th year of Meiji (1874) when Yedo was renamed Tokyo, she came to the new capital, where she worshipped at the mausoleum of her deceased husband. She settled down in the Azabu Palace and led a nun's life, praying for the eternal happiness of her dead consort.

In August, the 10th year of Meiji (1877) she became ill and passed away on September 2. She was then aged thirty-two years. She was buried at Zojoji Temple in Shiba, in accordance with her desire.

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Japan's Wealth of Hotsprings

JAPAN being a volcanic country, it has a wealth of hot-springs, for which it is famous throughout the world. Most of these hot-springs were discovered many years ago, and were utilized for curative purposes.

As early as the Mythological Age Onamuchi-no-Mikoto discovered a hot-spring and with it healed Sukunahikona-no-Mikoto's disease. This may have been the first hot-spring discovered in Japan.

Later the Sacred Hot-spring of Idzu as well as those in Hakone was discovered, and as years rolled on many hot-springs were found here and there throughout the country. Those places where hot-springs are abound in picturesque scenery and historical relics. Thus they are not only popular for curing diseases but also for sight-seeing, all of them having ample in accommodation for such purposes.

Ikao Hot-Springs

Ikao Hot-springs are at the town of Ikao, 2,800 feet above sea-level, on the slope of Mt. Haruna, in Gumma Prefecture. According to tradition, these hot-springs were discovered during the reign of the Emperor Suinin some two thousand years ago. In the Mannyoshu, a collection of Japanese old poems, there are many poems dealing with Ikao Hot-springs. They are thus among the oldest hot-springs in Japan, historically as celebrated as Arima Hot-springs and Dogo Hot-springs. However it was about five hundred years ago that Ikao Hot-springs became well known throughout the country.

In those days people bathed in tubs at Yumoto, the source of the hot-springs. The present baths were opened in the 4th year of Tensho. The climate is dry and cool, even in summer the thermometer never exceeding eighty-four or five degrees while in winter it is never very cold. The weather is usually moderate, there being little sudden change in temperature and atmospheric currents. So it is very suitable for curing disease, or recuperation.

The water is saline ferrous with a temperature of 41 degrees centigrade average. It is colourless and odorless with moderate stimulativeness. As they contain comparatively much of the ferrous element, Ikao Hot-springs are specially efficacious for anemia, stomach and in-

The stone stepped street at Ikao hotsprings

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Kokyoku.

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The town of Kusatsu, which has noted sulphur baths.

testinal diseases, scrofula, and chronic rheumatism convalescence following serious illness or debility resulting from physical as well as mental over-exertion.

As for historical relics, there are the ruins of an old barrier at a place called Sekiya, where the foundation-stones of the old gate columns are still left. There is also the site of Minowa Castle. The landscapes of the neighbourhood are famous and have often been described in fiction, accounts of trips, poems and *haiku* (epigrammatic poems.) Through all the four seasons of the year the views are lovely and especially the maple-leaves in autumn is a sight of great beauty.

Kusatsu Hot-Springs

These hot-springs are situated at Kusatsu Town in Adzuma-gun, Gumma Prefecture, 4,500 feet above sea-level. The temperature is about 80 degrees Fahrenheit during summer and warm in winter. It is the foremost sulphureous watering-place in Japan, and is one of the oldest mineral springs of the country, discovered in the reign of the Emperor Kokyoku.

The water is so hot that sometimes bathers are scalded.

The watering-place is historically famed, and traditions tell that such warriors as Minamoto Yoritomo and Toyotomi Hideyoshi visited it.

Dr. Beltz, the noted German physician who lived in Japan, praised this mineral spring as being unrivalled in respect of the climate as well as the as the quality of the water. The bath is very good for injuries, bruises, venereal diseases, neuralgia and others.

The beauty of the scenery is equal to that of Ikao; the mountain air is unusually bracing. Mountains tower in the north-west, while south-east is a boundless expense of plateaux, beautiful when the maple leaves are tinged in autumn. Kogo Pond has two floating isles which float to and fro under the influence of the wind. The Tokonuno Waterfall is 120 feet high. Communication facilities are not very good.

Nasu Hot-Springs

This mineral bath is at Nasu Village in Nasu Prefecture, Shimotsuke Province. There are seven springs, of which Yumoto is the largest. The place was discovered by Kano Saburo Yukihiro, County Headman, in the reign of the Emperor Jomei. It is 3,000 feet above sea-level, half way up Mt. Nasu.

The source of the hot-springs is called Shika-no-Yu or Deer Spring, because of

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a tradition that while chasing a deer Yukihiro discovered the place.

The spring is acid or acid sulphureous, containing some ferrous element; a colourless and transparent water with the odour of sulphurated hydrogen. Its temperature is 172 degrees and it has remedial efficacy for chronic muscular and articular rheumatism, brain trouble, venereal diseases, piles, eye-diseases and others.

The scenery is beautiful, and the place commands splendid views. At the source of the spring is the noted *Sessho-Ishi* or Life-taking Stone, in connection with which there is the famous story of Tamamo-no-Mae, widely known among the Japanese people, being dramatized in plays and Joruri (ballad-dramas.) As regards this stone, Basho, the great epigrammatic poet, referred to it in his trabel account, "Oku no Hosomichi," (Narrow Paths in the Mountains) as follows:

"Tobu mono wa kumo bakari nari ishi no ue," wnich means "Above the Stone the onlv flying things are clouds." The name of the stone comes from the fact that sulphurated hydrogen emanates in its vicinity. Besides this stone there are many historical relics in this neighbourhood.

Shiobara Hot-Springs

This well-known watering place is near the town of Shiobara, Shioya-gun, Shimotsuke Province, and is famed also for its autumn foliage. According to tradition, the discovery of this mineral bath was made during the Daido Era, over one thousand years ago, and it was thanks to the celebrated sage-priest, Kukai, who made a preaching tour in this neighbourhood during the Shohei Era, that the place became widely known. There are ten hotsprings, each of which has its own characteristic contents and special virtue. Several of these springs are found on a plateau 1,500 feet above sea-level. The river scenery here is perhaps the most beautiful in Japan. Of the ten springs Shiogama Hot-spring, "Shio-no-Yu," and Hataorito Hot-spring are particular favored. Hataorito Hot-spring was mentioned by Koyo Ozaki, one of the great novelists of the Meiji Era, in his renowned novel, "Konjiki Yasha."

Hakone Hot-Springs

In the Hakone Mountains, Kanagawa Prefecture are what were formerly known as the Seven Hot-springs of Hakone, today generally known as the Twelve Springs of Hakone, as five new hotsprings have been discovered.

The first of those twelve is Yumoto Hot-spring, said to have been discovered by Shaku Jotei, a learned divine, in the 10th year of Tempei during the reign of the Emperor Shomu. The water is transparent and has remedial efficacy for neuralgia, and skin diseases, especially scrofula.

The place is rich in beautiful scenery and historical relics. Mt. Ishigaki was a stronghold held by Toyotomi Hideyoshi on the occasion of his Odawara Expedition.

Tonosawa Hot-spring is situated 425 feet above sea-level, and contains much salinity. It has the same remedial efficacy as Yumoto Hot-spring. Tonosawa Hot-spring is famous for its autumn foliage.

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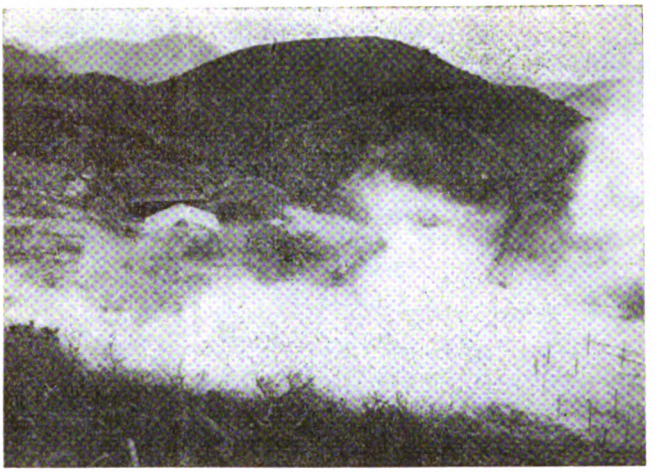

Owakidani (Big Hell) in the Hakone mountains.

Miyanoshita Hot-spring is situated 1,123 feet above sea-level, 1 *ri* 15 *cho* from Tonosawa. This also is a saline spring.

Dogashima Hot-spring is 790 feet above sealevel, and has the most beautiful landscape of all the Twelve Springs.

Sokokura Hot-spring, 1,169 feet above sea-livel is said to be the mineral bath in which Nitta Yoshitaka, one of the warriors loyal to the cause of the Imperial Southern Dynasty, had his wounds healed. The spring is a light saline one.

Kiga Hot-spring is 1,070 feet above sea-level. It is a salt spring. Streams in the neighbourhood are picturesque, while the beautiful Shirasagi Waterfalls are near it. Here is erected a memorial stone dedicated to the French General Lebon, once instructor to the Japanese Army.

The above enumerated six springs, with Kowakidani Hos-spring, have been widely known since olden times. All of them are not far from Tokyo; generally speaking, the weather is moderate and cool in summer. In the maple season in autumn the sight is a glorious one.

The five new springs are of saline or sulphureous nature and of remedial efficacy similar to the seven older springs.

The Hakone Mountains are full of scenic beauties and historical associations. Particularly the feudal Hakone Barrier is famous.

Atami Hot-Springs

Atami Hot-springs are the most widely known of all the springs of Idzu Peninsula. They are at the town of Atami in Takata-gun, Idzu province. The date of their discovery is not known, but that it was long ago can be comprehended from the many traditions handed down about this place.

From olden days people called them the Seven Spring of Atami, which consisted of O-yu, Seizaemon-yu, Ozawa-yu, Furo-yu, Kawara-yu, Sajiro-yu and Nonaka-yu. It is no exaggeration to say, however, that the town now is full of hot-springs, which number over forty. As a result we are no longer able to see the magnificent sight of geysers, characteistics of old Atami. But O-yu, one of the seven typical hot-springs of Atami, is a geyser even today. It gushes out twice a day, with regularity. The geysers are saline springs and good for rheumatism, various kinds of nervous diseases, stomach and intestinal diseases, etc.

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Atami faces the broad expanse of Sagami Bay in the east and is surrounded by steep mountains in the three other directions. The views are superb and the place is popular for avoiding the cold of winter.

The town and bay of Atami, where there is a noted hotspring, in the Japanese Riviera.

Arima Hot-Springs

These hot-springs are situated at the town of Arima, Arima-gun, Settsu Province, on the northern skirt of Mt. Rokko, 1,200 feet above sea-level. The air is fresh and in winter is warmer while in summer the climate is cool.

The place has an old history, being reputed to have been discovered by two gods, Onamuchi-no-Mikoto and Sukunahikona-no-Mikoto, in prehistoric times and became more widely known in consequence of the visits of the Emperor Jomei and the Emperor Kotoku.

Although it once lost its prosperity during the Taikwa Era, Bodhisattva Gyoki restored it to the old condition in the reign of the Emperor Shomu. Again, during the reign of the Emperor Gotoba Saint Jinsai completely renovated the baths.

The place is full of historical asociation. It is said that Toyotomi Hideyoshi accompanied by Yodogimi, his wife, visited the mineral bath.

The spring which is of saline nature has no colour, with some ferrous properties and is slightly turbid. It is specially good for chronic stomach catarrh and other stomach and intestinal diseases.

The system similar to an ordinary public bath in the cities is adopted, with a large bath in the centre of the town, where the spring gushes out, on account of the scarcity of the water. Bathers, therefore, have to walk to this bath from their respective hotels, towel in hand. Noted spots and scenic beauties are abundant in the neighbourhood.

Dogo Hot-Springs

Dogo Hot-springs are at Dogo-machi, Onsen-gun, Iyo Province. As the province has the Seto Inland Sea in the rear, the moderateness of the weather is unusual. Dogo is said to be the oldest known watering place in Japan.

Iu the Mythological Age the deity Sukunahikona took some hot water of the spring to the god Onamuchi who cured his sickness, thanks to the efficacy of this hot-spring; many princes of the blood later visited the bath, as did also the Emperor Korei, the seventh sovereign, the Emperor Keiko, the twelfth sovereign, the Emperor Chuai, the fourteenth sover-

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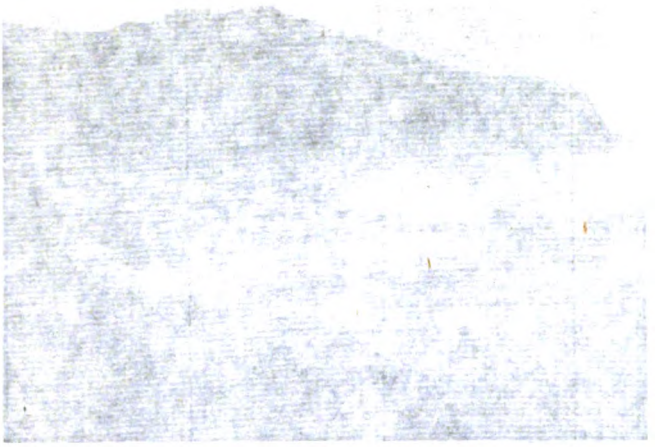

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eign, the Empress Jingo, the Emperor Jomei, the thirty-fourth sovereign and his Empress, the Emperor Saimei, the thirty-seventh sovereign, the Emperor Tenji, the thirty-eighth sovereign, the Emperor Tembu, the fortieth sovereign, etc. During the reign of the Empress Suiko, the thirty-third sovereign, it is said that prince Regent Shotoku once honoured the place with a visit.

The quality of the hot-springs is not unique. The water is light yellow, transparent and has a rather curious odour. It is an alkali spring with astringent properties, its temperature being 115 degrees where it gushes out. The special efficacy is for anemia, rheumatism, chronic intestinal catarrh, neurasthenia, bronchial catarrh, and others.

Among historical associations are the sites of the seven Emperors' temporary palaces, the Hot-spring Monument dedicated to Prince Jogu, the natal spot of Saint Ippen, the old ruins of Nigitatsu, Tama-no-Ishi or Sacred Stone, the old site of Yuyama Castle, Sagi-Ike or Heron's Pond, Kurumagaeshi Cerry-tree and many others.

It is foremost in Japan for the abundance of historical associations.

Beppu Hot-Springs

They are situated at the town of Beppu, Oita Prefecture. They are so widely known, not only at home but abroad, that the name "Beppu" has become a synonym, almost for hot-springs.

In regard to the enormous quantity of water gushing out as well as its high remedial efficacy, no other hot-springs in Japan can compare with Beppu Hot-springs.

The place is located at the southern corner of Hayami-gun. The town covers an area extending two *ri* from east to west and 1 *ri* from north to south. All the area is a hot-spring zone; wherever you dig the hot water gushes out.

Its history is traced back to very old days; two gods, Onamuchi-no-Mikoto and Sukunahikona-no-Mikoto, personally took baths here. Later on, in the reign of the twelfth Emperor Keiko its name became widely known. In the reign of the Emperor Shomu a Governor or the Province was for the first time appointed and he repaired the baths. When it nearly lost its prosperity in the reign of the Emperor Kammu, a certain monk, Shaku Zenshu, showed the villagers how to repair the watering place.

A scene at Beppu Hotsprings.

There are now seventeen baths, some of which are owned by the town

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authorities and the others are private properties.

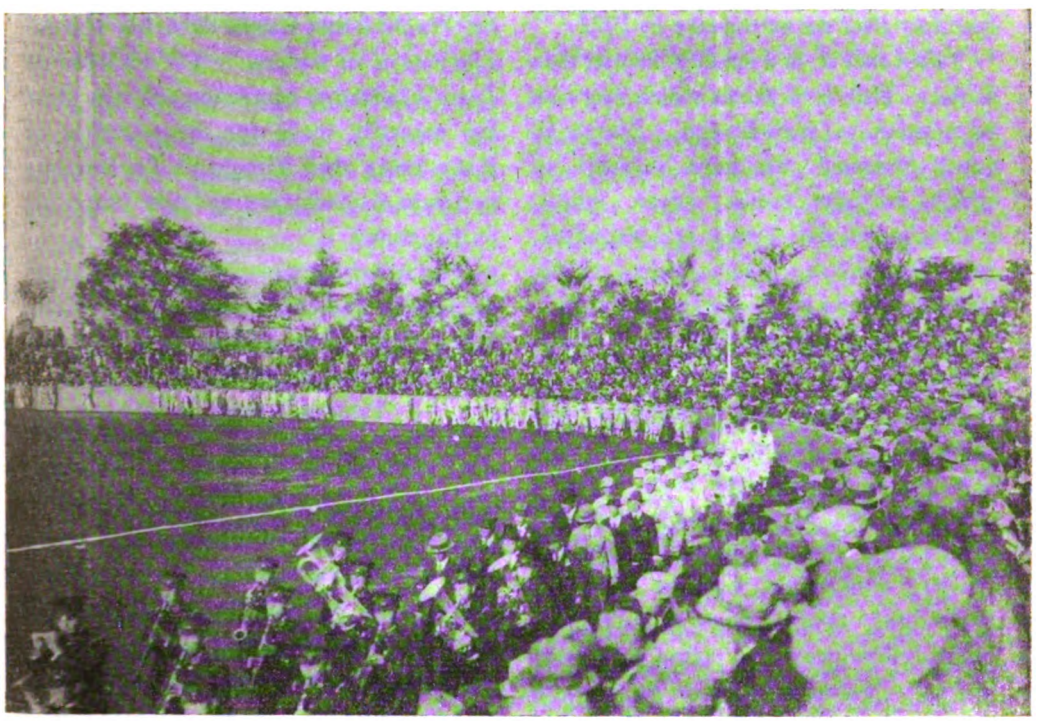
A unique feature of this watering place is its sand-baths on the beach. The abundant hot-spring water gushes out on the beach, wherever a hole is dug in the sand.

The quality of the water varies to some extent in accordance with the exact spot but, generally speaking, it is colourless and of alkali content, good for cerebrospinal diseases, gout, nerve, paralysis of the stomach and intestinal diseases, etc. The sand-bath is efficacious especially for neuralgia and rheumatism.

Besides the seventeen large baths there are many bath-houses on a smaller scale.

The place has fine views, with seascapes and landscapes at the same time.

In the vicinity there are numerous noted spots and historical relics.



The march-past of athletes, at the opening of the new stadium at the Meiji Shrine, Tokyo.

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Yokohama and Kobe as Trade Ports

YOKOHAMA and Kobe are the two biggest open ports of Japan. They have made nearly equal development commercially, but each is different from the other in hinterland, articles of trade handled and the latter's destinations.

The Yokohama people regret that the World War moved some trade interests from the east (Yokohama) to the west (Kobe), and this tendency was more manifest after the earthquake in 1923.

Yokohama is in a smaller district than Kobe. This is a factor which bears on its position as a trade port. Nearly all goods imported, the most valuable of which are raw cotton, sugar, wheat, metals, wood, flax, hemp, etc., therefore, pass throughit to other places, chiefly Tokyo, without being consumed locally.

As staple goods exported from Yokohama, the raw silk comes mostly from Nagano, Gumma and Fukushima Prefectures, the largest centres of silk industry in Japan, and from different other districts habutaye and other silk fabrics from Fukui (Echizen), Ishikawa (Kaga), Fukushima, Gumma and other prefectures, copper from Kozuke and Hitachi Provinces and cotton yarn from Tokyo. These goods are exported to Europe, America and China. Raw silk, silk fabrics and copper come by railway, and 'goods from Tokyo come over the bay for the most part. Imports are also sent by water to Tokyo.

Yokohama has some silk mills, braid factories and other industrial houses besides farms, which are too limited to produce enough food for the citizens. The economic development of the port has been retarded by this limited industrial zone. Moreover, too much importance attached to the raw silk trade by the citizens has restricted the number of other valuable export goods handled by them, and the number of vessels entering it has also been comparatively small of late.

Kobe is backed by the wide regions of Chugoku, Shikoku and Kyushu and also has Formosa and Korea as fields for the activities of its traders. The transfer of Japan's industrial centre towards the west has naturally made for the selection of Kobe more than Yokohama for the importatoin of machinery and raw materials to that centre.

The following table shows the value of the foreign trade of Yokohama and Kobe in the three years ending 1925 and the proportion each had to the total:

Year.	Value of Foreign Trade.		Proportion to the Total.	
	Y'hama. Yen	Kobe. Yen	Y'hama. %	Kobe. %
1923	1,183,869,210	1,365,038,352	46	54
1924	1,308,132,174	1,757,332,925	43	57
1925	1,521,021,858	1,936,338,270	44	56

Generally speaking, Yokohama is an export and Kobe an import port. Of the export trade of the whole country Yokohama has shared the larger portion and Kobe 30 per cent., and of the import trade Kobe has taken up the larger portion and Yokohama 30 per cent. It must be remembered, however, that the predominance of Yokohama in the national export trade is mainly on account of its raw silk trade, for which reason the general trade conditions there have been ruled alawys by changes in the economic

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situation in America, the biggest customer for Japan's raw silk. Raw silk requires fast steamers for transportation, in order to save interest and to prevent losses on prices, and the Japanese steamship companies, which have not such superior boats on their Pacific lines, naturally lose in competition in raw silk shipment with the foreign steamship lines.

The foreign trade of Yokohama being preponderantly in raw silk with America, its trade intersts are comparatively slight with China, Manchuria, South Sea coutries and India.

Goods exported from Kobe are mostly finished goods and those imported are chiefly raw materials or half-finished goods. This is a fact noteworthy in connection with industrial development. Kobe's neighbour is Osaka, the "Oriental Manchester," which is chiefly responsible for the large export of finished goods and import of raw materials.

In 1924, 58.8 per cent. of its total exports was finished goods, 25.8 per cent. half-finished goods and 6.3 per cent. food stuffs. The yearly average from 1912 to 1924 was 49.3 per cent. for finished goods, 32.5 per cent. for half-finished goods, 10.9 per cent. for food stuffs and 5.3 per cent. for raw materials.

In imports, 58 per cent. of the tolal was taken up by raw materials, 20.6 per cent. by half-finished goods, 18.9 per cent. by finished goods and 9.4 per cent. by food stuffs, and the yearly average from 1912 to 1924 was 58.8 per cent. for raw materials, 21.2 per cent. for half-finished goods, 12.5 per cent. for finished goods and 7 per cent. for food stuffs.

Kobe has hitherto had trade relations chiefly with British India, China, Hongkong, Australia, South Sea Islands and Germany, which have not been so largely interested in Yokohama trade at the same time, but America now heads the list in imports and exports.

Raw silk was added to Kobe's export list after the earthquake, which also occasioned an expansion of Kobe silk goods trade.

One noteworthy fact is that Germany has now come to hold fourth position among the countries having trade relations with Kobe there being a much increased business done in camphor, menthol crystals, isinglass, etc. for export and dyes, woollen yarns, etc. as imports.

For its domestic trade, Kobe has Shikoku, Chugoku and Kyushu and is the starting point for the Formosan and Korean steamship lines in the west and the Hokkaido and Karafuto steamships lines in the east. As compared with this extensive market Yokohama territory is confined to the Pacific coast of the main land east of Nagoya and a part of Hokkaido; the coast of Uzen and Ugo, Hokuriku and the west coast of Hokkaido belonging to Kobe. The completion of the Shibaura wharfs is likely to increase the landing of goods at Tokyo direct and not necessarily at Yokohama. Then the number of coasting steamers entering Yokohama will decrease.

The following figures show the amount of goods distributed in Yokohama, Kobe and other ports in 1923 and 1923:—

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Port 1923:	Quantity Tons	Order	Value Yen	Order
Yokohama .	6,365,094	3	699,223,008	3
Kobe	4,980,016	4	959,694,017	2
Osaka.....	8,500,334	1	2,155,957,844	1
Tokyo	4,598,460	5	602,143,007	4
Nagoya	2,953,733	6	166,168,069	5
Wakamatsu.	8,091,453	2	124,656,525	6
1924:				
Yokohama .	7,041,414	3	724,864,018	3
Kobe	6,407,499	4	1,360,031,148	2
Osaka.....	8,356,438	2	2,134,252,315	1
Tokyo	3,192,812	5	360,204,976	4
Nagoya.....	3,124,660	6	176,757,040	5
Wakamatsu.	8,595,207	1	148,416,758	6

Yokohama surpassed Kobe in the quantity of goods handled, but Kobe stands in a higher position than Yokohama in their value. The goods handled in Kobe are finished goods more than in Yokohama, with a higher value per ton than those in Yokohama.

In foreign and domestic trade, the proportions are as follow:—

	Tonnage Domestic Foreign		Value Domestic Foreign	
	Trade Per Cent.	Trade Per Cent.	Trade Per Cent.	Trade Per Cent.
Yokohama:				
1923	62	38	37	63
1924	58	42	35	65
Kobe:				
1923	51	49	41	59
1924	56	44	44	56

In tonnage the domestic trade in both ports was more important than the foreign trade, although in the value of goods, the foreign trade was higher than domestic.

The number of steamers on the coasting and adjacent sea services is greater at Kobe than Yokohama. Kobe has Formosa, Korea, Manchuria and China as its sphere of activity, and has extensive dealings with them. This region of distribution is being extended more and more with the extension of the steamship lines.

Industrial development is not very extensive in Yokohama and its neighbourhood, while near Kobe, there are about 300 works in Hyogo Prefecture and eastward led by the Kawasaki and Mitsubishi shipbuilding yards, the Kobe Steel Works and the Kanegafuchi Spinning Mills.

The following table shows the industrial production in the spheres of activity of the two ports:—

Tokyo-fu: Industry	Production 1,000 yen	No. of Works No.
Spinning	157,990	763
Metal	45,014	513
Machinery and Apparatus.	84,847	740
Chemical	116,673	375
Saw Mills and Lumber.....	16,136	142
Printing and Book Binding.	41,082	230
Food Stuffs	63,844	252
Gas and Electric	3,354	26
Other.....	24,244	258
Kanagawa-ken (Yokohama):		
Spinning	38 016	173
Metal.....	23,958	33
Machinery and Apparatus.	38,219	61
Chemical	14,376	37
Saw Mills and Lumber.....	1,682	34
Printing and Book Binding.	1,263	17
Food Stuffs	29,146	92
Gas and Electric	4,718	11
Other	2,096	50
Osaka-fu:		
Spinning	373,926	1,741
Metal.....	118,307	834
Machinery and Apparatus.	95,505	822
Chemical	172,128	455
Saw Mills and Lumber ...	13,509	216
Printing and Book Binding.	23,421	237
Food Stuffs	83,713	650
Gas and Electric	6,061	9
Other.....	109,487	797
Hyogo-ken (Kobe):		
Spinning	194,522	450
Metal	32,666	127
Machinery and Apparatus.	57,244	216
Chemical	91,878	327
Saw Mills and Lumber.....	16,706	292
Printing and Book Binding.	4,535	118
Food Stuffs	150,892	989
Gas and Electric.....	18,936	17
Other	13,007	248

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"Bringing Up Father"

THIS is a story of the Genroku Era.

There lived in Kyoto, at Muromachi-dori, a wealthy dyed-silk merchant of the firm name of "Ōbishi-ya." As he survived many children, he began to feel the uncertainty of human life and retired from activities, surrendering his fortune to Saburoshiro, the only remaining son.

The father thought: "Since youth I have taken interest in destroying living beings; bird shooting, angling, and what not. For this reason I must have been punished by Buddha to have had so many children of my own die. From now on I shall be a devotee to Buddhism so as to pray for the happiness of the dead."

Thereupon he consulted with his wife and renamed himself Jokaku, a Buddhist name, and gave her the name, "Myokaku." They would worship at the temple every day. People in town praised them for their fine conduct, murmuring: "Truly a laudable aim of theirs! The dead children must be very happy in Hades."

One day Jokaku was struck with surprise on receiving the report of the death of a daughter of one of his relatives. He attended her funeral service and on his way home passed along the River Kamo, to find an amateur angler who had caught several large fish. Originally, he had great interest in angling, so all at once he forgot the oath he made when he was converted to Buddhism. He was almost beside himself with curiosity and stopped to look at the fisher. As the man did not seem to be experienced he caught comparatively few fish, notwithstanding there were many in the water.

At the beginning Jokaku was watching in silence, but at length he became fretful. Tucking up his skirt, he came down into the river, approached the fisher, and said:

"With such a method as yours it will be hard for you to catch many fish. Lend me the fishing-rod, if you please. I'll show you how."

So saying, he snatched the rod from the hand of the astonished stranger, and, to the latters's further amazement, caught fifty or sixty fish in no time. Lightheartedly he went home. Being again infatuated with the amusement of fishing, his interest in the sport regained his mind. He entirely forgot his sins and their fruits; he began to yearn after the fishing-rod he had burnt up on his conversion to

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Buddhism. So he bought a set of fishing gear out of the money he was keeping for worship at the temple. He hesitated in the circumstances to keep them at home, and deposited them with the guardian of the graveyard.

On the pretext to go out every day to listen to the monk's preaching, he would leave home, not accompanied even by an apprentice. He had the guardian carrying a hand-pail while enticing and taking with him a temple apprentice, he would go down to the river-beach of Kojin where he had discovered a good fishing place. There he angled the whole day every day, caught a lot of fish, which he carried back to the temple in the pail and distributed among his friends. Now that his passion for angling had returned he would take with him two or three old men of the same age and the same Buddhist invocation club, luring them into the life-taking game.

Later the temple apprentice began to take more and more fancy to the sport. He stole a gong, used in Buddhist rites, dammed up the river, and scooped fish in the pool, making the tomb-guardian chase them. The act of taking lives went on a more and more extensive scale, a hand-net and then a cast-net being used for the purpose.

Since the old angler went out fishing everyday, his conduct soon was noised abroad, at length reaching the ears of his wife, Myokaku, and his heir, Saburoshiro, Both were utterly astonished. They expostulated with him in tears: "It will make a laughing stock of you to venture to angle or net fish in Buddhist attire. Worse than that, our dead children will be more severely punished in Hades."

Jokaku would not listen to them, but was irritated instead: "It was simply for the purpose of leading a happier life that I became converted to Buddhism, assigning my whole property to my son, not with the motive of living a similar life to that of a Buddhist monk. It is not your business, even if I fall into Hell for the sin of having caught fish in the river in this worldly life. Mind your own business and don't worry me any further." Thus scolding his wife and son, he openly went fishing.

Both wife and son who were at a loss, having exhausted all means of admonition, resorted to giving a feast, in Jokaku's absence, to the wives of the five elder townsmen dealing with the government of the ward. To those women they appealed: "Please urge your husbands to strongly admonish Jokaku so that he may make an oath to abandon the sinful habit of life-taking." One of the wives replied with tearful eyes:

"Your husband's amusement of life-taking can be compared with the commonplace hobby of a mediocre man. As for my own husband, despite his advanced age of sixty-seven and in spite of his important posts of elder townsman and town officer, he is given to drinking at tea-houses almost every day, without spending even a single night at home, and luring younger people into profligacy. Expostulated with by me, he is used to threaten me with divorce, despite the forty-five years of our married life. Shall I ask your Mr. Jokaku to give a good scolding to him today, or shall I request the chief priest of the temple to reprimand him tomorrow? I'm always thinking like this. How varied things in

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this world are!"

The wife of the head elder man burst into laughter and said:

"Let me tell you about my husband. Old as he is, he is, indeed, a theatre-fiend. As soon as he returns home from the theatre he will imitate the actors he has just seen on the stage. As he is far from imitating them to his own satisfaction, he has recently made himself a pupil of a certain Yoshikawa, stage imitator, whom he calls on almost every day, and no sooner does he come home than he goes upstairs and in the closed warehouse he indulges in training himself in the imitation of the utterances of noted actors. He has gone so far as to hurriedly have a false tooth put in, on the ground that it was because a tooth had dropped out that he could not skilfully imitate the word-rolling of that actor. Can this be the hobby for a seventy-two year-old man? As it is too nonsensical to ask anyone to admonish him, I have remained in silence and kept it secret. As to Mr. Jokaku's hobby, it is quite moderate. No harm will arise from it. It is too much to blame him this way or that."

Another woman took up the tale.

"You seem to be concerned with your husband's behavior," said she, "simply because he does not care about his future and is addicted to cruel things. Now I feel myself touched to the core, because nothing goes as one wishes in this worldy life. My husband has been so extreme in his devotion to Buddhism that he is now an utter human wreck, having squandered all his fortune, and our son has decided to disown him, as he has no strength to be occupied with his calling. On listening to our son's view, I was inclined to think he was in the right. My husband insists upon refraining from taking any meal prepared by a female, even his own wife, myself, on the ground that it is contradictory to one of the Five Hundred Commandments of Buddhism. For that reason he has engaged an extra cook while he himself is devoting himself to Buddhist mass from morn till eve every day, without any interest in his occupation. Once when he happened to make his appearance in the shop and when asked by a customer what price he placed on a tobacco-tray, our son replied: 'The whole set is Yen 8.50.' Then my husband would object to it: 'No, its net price is Yen 5.00. Is it not impious to put an overcharge on it? Remember that falsehood is against the Commandments. My dear customer, my son is telling a lie, it's only five yen.'

"Our son would not agree, in indignation, and said: 'It is quite reasonable for a merchant to ask a profit; how can he live by offering it to the customer at the cost price? Be silent, you interrupt my business!' Then my husband calms his son: 'Ah! you are a simple layman. Poor fellow! as you are so avaricious as to cheat your customer only to prosper your own business, you are committing a wrong, ignoring the precious Buddhist scripture.'

"In this manner he makes a long preachment every day, and scatters money and rice any and everywhere as alms. After consultation with our son we have decided to confine him in an isolated room from today."

All present were fascinated by what she said. Especially the Buddhist angler's

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wife was greatly moved. They all came to the conclusion, that too radical devotion to a religion is an adversity to wife and children and that everything should be moderate.

Jokaku's wife and son, who were listening to the story, sighed and said:

"It would trouble ourselves, if we were too rigorous in blaming him for his life-taking habit. Is it not more wrong to be too pious? He might as well be fishing."

Jokaku's hobby was thus praised and approved!

New Mexican Minister accredited to Tokyo.

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Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress

THE Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress was held in Tokyo from October 30 to November 11, as had been looked forward to with keen interest in scientific circles here and abroad.

On October 30, the opening ceremony was held in the assembly hall of the Tokyo Imperial University, commencing at 2.30 p.m. Flanking the Imperial seat at the front of the hall were seated H. I. H. Prince Kan-in, Patron of the Congress, the Prime Minister, Mr. Wakatsuki, the Honorary President, Dr. J. Sakurai, the President of its Executive Committee; Foreign Ambassadors and Ministers, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, the Minister for Education, the Presidents of the First and Second Pan-Pacific Congresses, the President of the House of Peers, the President of the House of Representatives, the President of the Imperial Academy, and the Presidents of the Imperial Universities, Waseda and Keio Universities, and other foreign and Japanese personages, and the Honorary Vice-Presidents. The seats facing the platform were accupied by the Delegates of the Congress.

After the playing of the national anthem, the Chairman announced the opening of the meeting. Then H. I. H. Prince Kan-in read a message, which was followed by a speech by Prime Minister Wakatsuki, the Honorary President, and an opening address by Dr. J. Sakurai, the Chairman. Speeches were delivered by some foreign and Japanese delegates. The ceremony closed at 4 p. m. with the national anthem. The meeting was attended by about 3,000 persons and was highly successful.

The General Meeting

The First Day (November 1).—After the opening ceremony, the Congress held its general meetings in the Imperial Diet building.

The first Joint Divisional Meeting took place from 9.30 a.m. to noon. The day's subject of discussion was the review of the present state of knowledge of the physical and biological oceanography of the Pacific. It was discussed earnestly by many great scholars with an interchange of unreservedly expressed views.

Dr. T. Wayland Vaughan of the U.S. A. gave a report, as the Chairman of a standing committee of the Congress, on the physical and biological oceanography of the Pacific, summing up the results of research made co-operatively by Japanese and other scholars since the last Congress. The report attracted the most careful attention.

Other interesting reports were made by Dr. George F. McEwen as the Chairman of the American Sectional Committee on the same subject on a summary of materials for study at the Scripps Research Institute.

Among the Japanese Delegates, Lieutenant-Commander Kishito of the Hydrographical Department of the Imperial Navy reported in summary on a study of the Black Current, Mr. S. Ogura, a Naval Engineer of the Fishery Institute, on a study of biological oceanography in Japan.

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From 5 to 6.30 p. m. in the auditorium of the new Engineering College building of the Tokyo Imperial University, Dr. A. Lacroix or France lectured on the explosion of Martinique in 1912 and Dr. Ray Lyman Wilbur, President of Leland Stanford Junior University, on chemical experiments.

The Second Day (November 2).—From this day, various divisional and sectional meetings were held. From 9. 30 a. m., the Physical Divisional Meeting and the Biological Divisional Meeting were held in the Budget Committee's chambers of the Upper and Lower Houses respectively. The day's subjects at the former meeting were (1) solar activity in relation to geophysical problems of the Pacific region and the form of the geoid in the Pacific region and (2) metallogenetic epochs of the Pacific region, and their bearing upon its structural unity; and those at the latter meeting were (1) inter-relationship of the flora of Pacific regions as indicated by the distribution of certain groups of land and marine plants and (2) flora and fauna of the islands of the Pacific, with special reference to the problems of endemism and migration.

At the latter meeting, several other persons read papers: Dr. W. A. Setchell about the endemism and migration of flora of the islands of the Pacific, Mr. R. H. Cambage about the development of some species of Australian plants, Dr. William Henry Brown about the plants of the Philippine Islands, E. O. Merrill about important problems regarding Polynesian plants, Dr. T. Nakamura as to how flora in Japan and Korea are connected by Tsushima and Saishu-to and the plants of Tagala Island (their formation and relation to Chinese and Korean flora), Prof. C. Skottsberg about isolated flora in the Pacific. Mr. R. H. Cambage about Australian species in the flora of Hawaii, Dr. K. W. Dammerman about a comparison between the flora of Karakatsu Island and Christmas Island, Prof. Leo S. Berg about the zone of the zoogeographical distribution of freshwater fish in the Far East, Dr. N. Kuroda about a study of the birds in the Loochoo Islands and their neighbourhood, Prof. Josephine E. Tilden about the distribution of algae in the Pacific, Dr. K. Miyabe about the existence in a small isolated region in the southern extremity of Saghalin of breeds of Lamineria produced specially in the Bering Strait and Kurile Islands, Dr. K. Okamura about the distribution of algae in Japan and Mr. S. Yamada about the botanical geographical relation of green seaweed of the Malay Archipelago, Australia and Japan to those of the Marianas, Caroline and Marshal Islands.

Then, the meeting entered into the discussion of the day's subjects. Dr. Walter T. Swingle, an American botanist, declared that the effort of the Home Department of Japan for preserving natural monuments is a great work in the Japanese scientific world, and there are many animals and plants of the Pacific, which are becoming extinct, and it is our duty to consider means to preserve them.

For the afternoon, sectional meetings were held from 1.30 to 4.00 p.m. on the subjects of astronomy, architecture, geology, geography, agriculture, botany, medicine and hygiene.

The Third Day (November 3).—

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Divisional Meetings were held from 9.30 a.m. The day's subjects at the Physical Divisional Meeting were (1) the continuation of discussion of the subjects adjourned from the last meeting (2) form of geoid in the Pacific region as deduced from geodetic observations, measurements of gravity or plumb-line deviation, (3) suitable projections for maps on different scales for the countries bordering on the Pacific.

Those at the Biological Divisional Meeting were (1) fauna of the islands of the Pacific, with special reference to the problems of endemism and migration, (2) rational methods for the protection of useful aquatic animals and plants of the Pacific, (3) distribution of bonito and tunny in the Pacific and their ecological studies, (4) distribution and life-history of fresh water eels in the Pacific region, (5) international cooperation in the investigations of pelagic fish eggs and larvae.

There was great enthusiasm manifested in the discussion of the subjects among the delegates. It was so warm in the chamber with the strong sunlight of the autumn shining in that a foreign delegate suggested, amid laughter, "Let us open the windows of the hall before opening the windows of science!"

This day, the Japanese delegates played a more important role than on the preceding two days, with 80 per cent. of the papers read at the Physical Divisional Meeting and 60 per cent. at the Biological Divisional Meeting. Among the papers read at the former meeting were one about the geological history of Southern and Eastern Japan in the Middle Ages by Dr. G. Ozawa, Professor of the Tokyo Imperial University, one about the geology of mountains in the centre of Shikoku by the same professor, one about a physical geographical study of the earthquake in the Kwanto District by Dr. N. Yamazaki, one about topographical changes in Japan accompanying earthquakes and volcanic explosions by Dr. A. Imamura, one about destructive earthquakes in the south-eastern part of Japan repeated in the past two thousand years by the same professor, and one about the horizontal deviating power and motion of the earth's crust on the occasion of earthquakes and volcanic explosions by Dr. S. Fujiwara.

Those read at the latter meeting included one about the life-history of bonito and tunny by Dr. K. Kishigami, one about the zoo-geography of Japan by Dr. S. Yada and one about a new study of the distribution of Formosan fish by Dr. M. Oshima. In the afternoon, five sectional meetings were held on subjects of geology, seismology, agriculture, zoology, fishery, anthropology and ethnology. They lasted from 1.30 to 4.00 p.m At the sectional meeting of zoology and fishery, it was proposed by Dr. George H. Parker and approved to appoint a special committee for a study of zoological and fishery questions in the Pacific. The committee was at once chosen.

From 4.50 p.m. at the Tokyo Shoko-Shorei-Kwan, Marunouchi, Dr. T. A. Jaggar, the President of the Hawaian Volcano Research Institute, spoke on the lava of Mauna Loa Volcano, which erupted in 1926.

The Fourth Day (November 4),—Another Joint Divisional Meeting was held from 9.30 a.m. in the assembly-hall of the House of Representatives. Interest

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was intense as the subjects to be discussed were all practical international questions regarding the Pacific. There were 14 proposals made from different directions, led by one by Colonel Sir Gerald P. Lenox-Conyngham for the formation of three organs for research as to the bed of the Pacific and the form of the globe in the southern hemisphere and investigating gravitation. It was decided to leave this proposal with the Committee on Geography and Physics.

Then Dr. A. Lacroix of France and Dr. Marshall of Australia proposed that the Congress declare it necessary that a more systematic study should be made by the Governments of the countries related to the Pacific as to the chemical structure of volcanos and rocks of the islands of the Pacific. This proposal was unanimously passed.

The next proposal made was by Mr. Maurice Holland of America, who proposed the organization of an international exchange of fishing methods in the region of the Pacific. After this, Dr. C. MacLean Fraser of Canada and Dr. Albert W.C.T. Herre of the Philippines proposed international co-operation in a study of pelagic fish eggs and larvae. It was decided to consider these proposals at sectional meetings.

Dr. T. A. Jaggar of Hawaii spoke, desiring that practical methods be taken in regard to international co-operation in a study of volcanology and seismology, after which the meeting rose at noon.

The Fifth Day (November 5).—The Physical and Biological Divisional Meetings were held commencing at 9.30 a.m. The day's subjects of discussion at the Physical Divisional Meeting were (1) study of volcanoes in the Pacific region in their various aspects (2) question of igneous rocks in the Pacific. Those at the Biological Divisional Meeting were (1) preservation of natural monuments in the Pacific regions, and (2) scientific bases for plant quarantine in the countries of the Pacific.

At the Physical Divisional Meeting, Dr. Arthur Louis Day of America discussed his interesting study of volcanic activity. This speech received the applause and admiration of the whole meeting. Among the Japanese de'·gat s, Dr. T. Nakamura talked on a study of the measurement of the muddy stream of Tokachi Mountain and Dr. M. Matsuyama a study of Sakurajima.

At the Biological Divisional Meeting, Dr. Walter T. Swingle spoke highly of the existing protection of natural monuments in Japan and of their protection by law in Japan and the Netherlands, which must be taken as a model by other countries.

A resolution was passed in regard to this question to the effect that a resolution should be adopted by the Congress urging the protection of natural monuments in the countries of the Pacific, which the Congress considers necessary. A committee of 12 members was chosen.

The meeting considered scientific bases for plant quarantine in the countries of the Pacific, and Dr. Walter T. Swingle of America, Dr. David T. Fullaway of Hawaii and Dr. S. Matsumura, Dr. I. Kuwana, Dr. C. Harukawa and Dr. H. Yuasa of Japan expressed their views on it.

Both meetings adjourned at noon.

The third lecture meeting was held at

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5 p.m. at the Tokyo Shoko-Shorei-kwan, and Dr. Griffith Taylor spoke on the Australian natives.

The Sixth and Seventh Days.—On these two days, the delegates went on excursions, and there were no divisional or sectional meetings held.

The Eighth Day (November 8).—Five sectional meetings were held. They were full of enthusiasm after the excursions made on the preceding two days.

At the Sectional Meeting on subjects of medicine and hygiene, papers were read by six Japanese delegates. Then, the meeting entered upon the discussion of the question of food, clothing and dwelling houses in relation to climate in the different regions of the Pacific. Dr. S. Toda read a paper on his noteworthy study of the food question and Dr. N. Sayegi on methods of the study of nutrition.

At the Sectional Meeting on subjects of agriculture, Dr. S. Matsumura read a paper on his study of noxious insects.

At the Sectional Meeting on subjects of anthropology, Dr. Griffith Taylor, Dr. Frederick Starr, Dr. Hasebe, Dr. Matsumura and Dr. Yoshida read papers on their respective studies.

At the Sectional Meeting on subjects of meteorology and terrestrial magnetism, Mr. C. C. Chu of China, and Dr. Y. Horiguchi and Dr. R. Mitsuda of Japan published their views.

The Sectional Meeting on subjects of geology and geography, debated the metallogenetic epochs of the Pacific region, and their bearing upon its structural unity and the mineral resources of the Pacific region: coal, petroleum, sulphur, phosphate of lime, and useful metals.

The Ninth Day (November 9.)—Both the Physical and Biological Divisional Meetings were held from 9 a.m.

At the Biological Divisional Meeting, the day's subject of discussion was genetics in relation to the improvement of important crops, more particularly rice, and of live stock. Papers were read by Japanese delegates, including Dr. K. Watanabe and Mr. S. Ogura about the generations of silkworms, Dr. K. Masui about the transmittable hair colours of horses, Prince Takatsukasa about a study of crosses of macaws and the Mendel principle, and Dr. Terao about the improvement of rice in the past twenty years and its future.

At the Physical Divisional Meeting, the day's subject of discussion was thermal springs in the Pacific region. Dr. Arthur Louis Day gave a theoretical explanation of experiments on the creation of motive power from thermal springs, and it met with great applause. Dr. T. Nakamura read a paper concerning the distribution of radio in Japan and Dr. A. Matsubara spoke about subterranean water used in the brewing of sake at Nishinomiya and its neighbourhood.

After that, the subject of distribution of rare elements in the Pacific region was brought up for discussion. Rev. E. F. Poget of Australia announced his views on the subject. Dr. Tanakadate of Japan refuted it, and Dr. C. Coleridge Farr spoke in compromise. The interest was unusually high.

Both meetings rose at noon. At night, a public lecture-meeting was held.

The Tenth Day (November 10).—

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The Physical and Biological Divisional Meetings took place at 9 a.m. These meetings and seven sectional meetings, held subsequently, brought the Congress practically to an end.

At the Biological Divisional Meeting, two papers were read out of the four submitted. One of them was about the preservation of seeds by Dr. Ray Lyman Wilbur and Mr. W. C. Lowdermilk of America. Then, Dr. M. Kondo of Japan amounced the results of his twenty years' study of the preservation of rice and changes in its physical character during its preservation. His paper was found to be one of the best read at this Congress. Dr. W. A. Setchell proposed to select a committee on an international study of the corals of the Pacific and the Indian Ocean, for biologists, geologists and oceanographists will have to cooperate in it. The meeting approved the proposal. Secondly, Dr. Walter T. Swingle put forward a proposal regarding the protection of natural monuments, and it was approved. Thirdly, Prof. C. Skottsberg proposed a resolution for the protection of the animals of Juan Fernandez Island, Chili, and it was passed.

The meetings rose at 9.30 a. m.

At 10.30 a. m., sectional meetings were held on the subjects of electric waves, geology and geography, agriculture, anthropology and ethnology, botany, medicine, hygiene, zoology and fishery. They ended at 12.30 p. m.

The Eleventh Day (November 11).— The Congress held its closing ceremony in the form of a general meeting. At 1.30 p. m., the meeting was opened, Dr. Sakurai taking the chair. It decided to hold the Fourth Pan-Pacific Science Congress in Java. It also resolved to perpetuate the Congress. After that, the meeting passed resolutions proposed by the divisional meetings. Finally, resolutions of thanks were proposed by Colonel Sir Geraid P. Lenox-Conyngham, English Delegate, to the Imperial house of Japan, by Dr. F.A.F.G. Wendt, Dutch delegate, to the Imperial Japanese Government, by Dr. Arthur Louis Day to the Imperial Academy, the Geological Research Institute of the Tokyo Imperial University and some other scientific societies, by Dr. R. W. Brock to the Mayor, the local Governor, associations, companies and some individual ladies and gentlemen, by Dr. P. Schmidt of Russia to the Japanese nation through the press. These proposals were passed amid applause. Then, Dr. Sakurai, the Chairman announced the close of the Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress to Dr. H. E. Gregory and Prof. Sir D. O. Masson, the Chairman of the First and Second Congresses respectively.

At 3 p. m., this significant and successful Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress was formally brought to an end.

The resolutions proposed by the divisional meetings and passed at the above General Meeting are as below:—

1. Cooperative study of volcanology and local seismology.
2. Geodetic study by submarine boats.
3. Creation of the "Pacific Geological Review."
4. Selection of a Preparatory Committee for the Fourth Pan-Pacific Science Congress.
5. Making of weather-charts.
   (Proposed by the Physical Division.)

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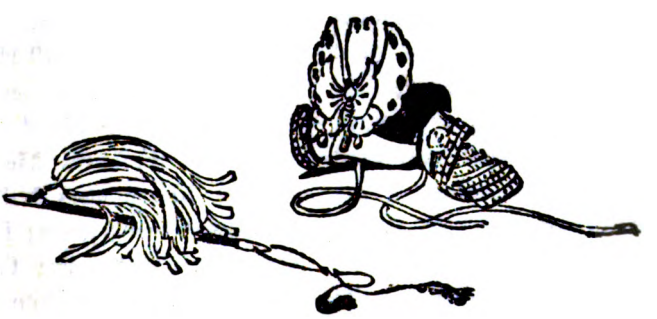
6. Use of radio for the unity of time of meteorology.
7. Unity of wave-lengths of radio.
   (Proposed by the Radio Section of the Physical Division.)
8. Unity of methods of study of mineral reseources in the Pacific region and its organ.
9. Topographic study of the bed of the Pacific.
10. Study of the shape of the globe and more particularly of the shape of the Southern Hemisphere with Australia in the centre.
    (Proposed by the Geological and Geographical Section of Physical Division.)
11. Preservation of natural monuments in the Pacific region.
12. Memorial to the Chilian Government regarding the preservation of animals and plants of Juan Fernandez Island.
13. Study of corals of the Pacific and the Indian Ocean.
    (Proposed by the Biological Division.)
14. Biological study of the Pacific.
15. Protection of crops, more particularly plant quarantine in the countries of the Pacific.
    (Proposed by the Zoological and Fishery Section of the Biological Division.)
16. Cultivation on declivities and their use.
    (Proposed by the Agricultural Section of the Biological Division.)



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Semi-Centenary of Japan Red Cross Society

AS it is just fifty years this year since the Japan Red Cross Society was born the Society held a grand celebration on the memorable day, November 3, birthday of the late Emperor Meiji, at Take-no-Dai, Ueno Park, Tokyo, in the presence of Her Majesty the Empress, simultaneously with its 34th ordinary general meeting. In beautiful autumn weather the day dawned, and over 32,000 members from every part of Japan hurried to the place of ceremony early in the morning; the attendance was so large that there was hardly any standing room left by 9 a.m., the time of opening the ceremony.

Her Majesty left the Imperial Palace at 9:40 a.m. and arrived at the meeting at 10 a.m. amid the playing of the national anthem and was welcomed by T. I. H. Prince Kanin, Honorary President; Crown Princess Naga-ko; Prince Fushimi, Sr. and Prince Fushimi Jr.; Prince Kuni; Prince Nashimoto; Prince Asaka; Prince Kanin Jr.; Princesses Higashi-Fushimi and Takeda, and other Imperial Princes and Princesses of the Blood; Baron Hirayama, President; Marquis Tokugawa and Mr. Sakamoto, Vice-Presidents; Viscount Ishiguro, ex-President; all the Directors and Standing Members of the Executive Committee; Dowager-Marchioness Nabeshima, President of the Japan Volunteer Nurse Society; Dowager-Baroness Motono, Vice-President of the Nurse Society, and others.

Her Majesty was ushered by Baron Hirayama, President, to her resting-room in the Imperial Academy of Art, where she granted audience to the Princes and Princesses of the Blood and others.

President Baron Hirayama reported to her the work of the Society for this year and showed her many documents concerning the undertakings of the Society. Then formal audience was granted to Baron Hirayama, President; Marquis Tokugawa and Mr. Sakamoto, Vice-Presidents; Marchioness Nabeshima, President of the Volunteer Nurse Society; Directors and Manager of the Society; Director of the Red Cross Hospital; chiefs of all the local branches of the Society and four bearers of the blue ribbon medal, etc.

President Baron Hirayama, Viscounts Ishiguro and Matsudaira were specially summoned to her presence and were given a gracious address.

In the ceremonial hall H. I. H. Prince Kanin, Honorary President; Princes and Princesses of the Blood; the two Vice-Presidents; Emeritus Members of the Society; Marchioness Nabeshima of the Volunteer Nurse Society; Premier Wakatsuki; Marshal Uehara; General Ugaki, Minister of War; Admiral Takarabé, Minister of the Navy; General Kikuchi, Inspector-General of Military Education: Speaker Kasuya of the House of Commons; Ambassadors and Ministers accredited to the Imperial Court; Messrs. Payne and Gielgud, representing the League of Red Cross Societies; delegates of the U. S. and Indian Red Cross

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Societies and members of the International Red Cross, all of whom had come to Japan to attend the Oriental Red Cross Conference, and members attending the Pan-Pacific Science Congress held at Tokyo and others awaited Her Majesty.

Amid music Her Majesty in foreign costume, made her gracious appearance, escorted by President Baron Hirayama. All those present applauded and Her Majesty seemed very happy. She acknowledged the ovation and took her seat.

Baron Hirayama declared the opening of the general meeting, then made a report on the work of the Japan Red Cross during 1925 and the closing account for the same year. With this the general meeting was terminated and Baron Hirayama declared it would immediately be followed by the celebration ceremony.

Her Majesty stood up and read her Imperial message in a very clear voice; Field-Marshal Prince Kanin, Honorary President, proceeded to her seat and received the message; then he made a suitable reply to Her Majesty. The reply of Prince Kanin was followed by an address by President Baron Hirayama, by Premier Wakatsuki, by M. de Bassompierre, Ambassador for Belgium, Doyen of the Diplomatic Corps; and Mr. Hiratsuka, Governor of Tokyo-fu, representing all the chiefs of the local branches of the Japan Red Cross. Then Baron Hirayama announced the close of the ceremony.

When Her Majesty was about to descend from her dais, "Banzai" was again shouted by the gathering. It was 11: 10 a.m. when she retired from the ceremonial hall under the escort of Baron Hirayama. After staying for ten minutes in the resting-room she returned to the Imperial Palace, pleased with the ovation of the huge assembly.

Baron Hirayama, President of the Japan Red Cross Society, on the successful close of the general meeting of the Society for this year and the celebration of its semi-centenary, went to Kyoto, leaving Tokyo the following night, to report at the Imperial Mausoleums at Momoyama of the Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken. He arrived at Kyoto on the morning of November 5. At 9 a.m. he proceeded to the Emperor's Mausoleum under the escort of an Imperial Household official, then he worshipped at the East Momoyama Mausoleum of the late Empress.

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Following the programme which was made known to our readers in the preceding number of this magazine, the first session of the general meeting of the Second Oriental Red Cross Conference was held on November 15, 1926.

The conference was opened at 3 p.m. at the auditorium of the Japan Red Cross Society Building at Shiba Park, Tokyo. The delegates representing the Red Cross Societies of 18 nations, representatives of the relief, sanitary, junior and nursing sections of the World's Red Cross Societies and those of the technical sections of the societies, one hundred and fifty men and women in all, were present.

Baron Hirayama, President of the Japan Red Cross Society, took his seat as temporary Chairman, and read an address sent by H. M. the Empress.

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The election of Chairman followed. Baron Hirayama was proposed as chairman by Mr. Payne, delegate of the U. S. Red Cross, and seconded by Col. Nauth, representative of the Indian Red Cross.

This was approved and the Baron took his seat as Chairman side by side with Mr. Payne. The Chairmen nominated members of the different sections of the Conference. The proceedings took place from the following day, November 16, with the list of the members of the various sections as below: —

FIRST SECTION: Col. Nauth, Chief Committee of Proceedings; Mr. de Gielgud, Secretary.

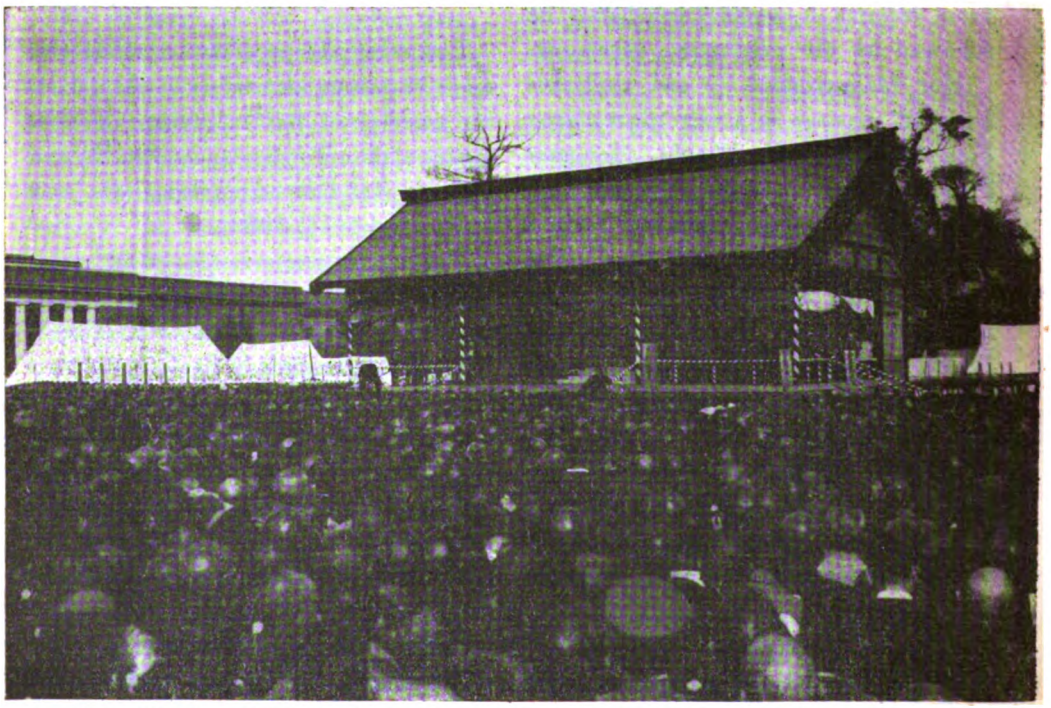
SECOND SECTION: Dr. José Fabella, Chief Relief Committee, Representative of the Philippines, Viscount de Rougé Secretary.

THIRD SECTION: Dr. van Lonkhuzen, Chief Sanitary Committee, Representative of Netherland East Indies; Dr. Humbert, Secretary.

FOURTH SECTION: Miss Lillian Wu, Chief Nursing Committee, Representative of the Chinese Republic; Miss A. Fitzgerald. Secretary.

FIFTH SECTION: Col. Damrong, Chief Junior Committee, Representative of Siam; Mr. C. H. Foster, Secretary.

The second day was selected for reports on the activities and present condition of the Red Cross Societies of the world represented respectively by the delegates attending the Conference. The session took place at 9:30 a.m. The third and following day's proceedings were as reported by our magazine in the preceding number.



Assembly of the Japan Red Cross Society at Ueno Park, Tokyo, in its 34th session and in commemoration of the 50th anniversary of the founding of the Red Cross Society.

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